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THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGIST

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GENERAL INFORMATION: SIXTY-FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION

Cleveland, Ohio, September 4 to 9, 1953

ERWIN K. TAYLOR, *APA Convention Manager*

THIS announcement provides general information about the 1953 APA Annual Convention. A hotel reservation form and an advance registration form are included in this issue (pp. 219 and 220). A Call for Papers was announced by the APA Convention Program Committee in the February 1953 *American Psychologist*. For all details concerning papers, symposia, and scheduling of meetings, see the February issue.

Please note that since the publication of the February issue, it has been necessary to change the location of the convention to Cleveland, Ohio. Western Reserve University will be host institution. For further details on this point see the April *American Psychologist*.

The Local Arrangements Committee consists of the Convention Manager and a number of subcommittee chairmen who will assist in the handling of various details of the Convention. Members interested in matters handled by the subcommittees listed below are requested to communicate directly with the appropriate chairman. On matters not covered by these subcommittees, members should write to Erwin K. Taylor, Convention Manager, Personnel Research Institute, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio.

Time and Place of Meetings: Friday, September 4, through Wednesday, September 9, 1953 in Cleveland, Ohio. Meetings will be held in several centrally located hotels and the Cleveland College Building of Western Reserve University. The Program will designate the location of each meeting. Cleveland will be on Eastern Daylight Saving Time.

Headquarters: Cleveland Hotel, Public Square. However, the Registration Desk will be located on the first floor of the Cleveland College Building.

Hotel Reservations: The hotel reservation form is printed on page 219 of this issue. A list of those hotels which have agreed to reserve rooms for members of the APA is shown on page 219. Members

expecting to attend the convention must secure their own room reservations by filling out the form and sending it to the APA Housing Office. Information as to types of rooms available and approximate costs are shown. Additional forms may be obtained from the APA Central Office. In order to be assured of hotel space, it is strongly urged that hotel accommodations be applied for as soon as possible; since the convention takes place during the Labor Day Holiday, the city will be crowded with tourists and hotel rooms will be scarce. Reservations will be confirmed *after July 1, 1953*.

Registration: To save time and avoid inconvenience upon arrival, members are urged to use the advance registration blank on page 220 of this issue. All members should call at the convention registration desk at Cleveland College (after checking in at their hotels) to complete their registration or to pick up convention badges if they have registered in advance. The registration desk will open at noon Thursday, September 3. Registration activities will be under the supervision of William E. Kendall, Chesapeake and Ohio Railroad, Cleveland, Ohio.

Directory of Members: Leonard Ronis, Cleveland Transit System, will be in charge of maintaining a directory of members registered at the convention. The data from the member's registration form will be used to provide the necessary index of registrants. This directory will be located in the Red Room on the Mezzanine Floor of the Cleveland Hotel. A mailbox and bulletin board will also be located nearby.

Special Dinners and Luncheons: Dinners and luncheons which are to appear in the official program must be requested through Launor F. Carter, Chairman, Convention Program Committee, AFF HRU No. 2, P. O. Box 446, Fort Ord, California, before May 8, 1953. Arrangements for dinners and luncheons which are not to appear in the pro-

gram will be made directly by Gladys M. Friedman, Cleveland Receiving Hospital, 3395 Scranton Road, S. W., Cleveland 9, Ohio. Requests for such luncheons and dinners should be submitted as early as possible.

It is estimated that lunches will cost at least \$2.00 per person, plus 10 per cent for gratuities, plus 3 per cent Ohio sales tax, and dinners at least \$3.00 per person, plus 10 per cent for gratuities, plus 3 per cent Ohio sales tax. Tickets will be sold at the information desk in the Red Room of the Cleveland Hotel. Tickets for luncheons must be purchased no later than the evening before the day on which the luncheon is held and not later than 2 P.M. of the day the dinner is scheduled.

Exhibits: Space for commercial exhibits will be provided in the Red Room of the Cleveland Hotel. For information as to facilities, costs, arrangements, etc., please write to Richard W. Wallen, Department of Psychology, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio.

Information Desk: An information desk will be maintained in the Red Room of the Cleveland Hotel under the direction of W. Roland Cook, Department of Psychology, Western Reserve University. In addition to convention information, the information desk will provide schedules of eating places, local points of interest, and recreational facilities.

Arrangements for Care of Children: Members interested in securing baby sitters during the Convention should write to Mrs. John A. Le Bedoff, Personnel and Placement Service, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio, for college students who may be available on an hourly basis.

Publicity: A. W. Quattrochi, University News Bureau, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio, will coordinate publicity activities of the convention. A pressroom will be maintained in Parlors 1 and 3 of the Cleveland Hotel.

Projectors, etc.: Charles Porter, Department of Psychology, Western Reserve University, Cleveland 6, Ohio, will be in charge of projection equip-

ment. While every effort will be made to supply appropriate equipment, authors of papers are urged to substitute mimeographed tables and charts for slides wherever possible.

Other Groups and Organizations Meeting at the Same Time as the APA: Joel T. Campbell, Personnel Research Institute, Cleveland 6, Ohio, will be in charge of making arrangements for such groups. Officers of these groups should contact Dr. Campbell as far in advance of the actual meetings as possible, stating their needs. Groups desiring to hold paper-sessions or symposia should send their requests to a division program chairman or to the APA Program Committee chairman. Space will be provided if it is available after all APA meetings have been scheduled.

Parking: Daytime parking in downtown Cleveland is a difficult proposition. Nearby commercial garages and hotel-associated garages charge about \$1.50 for a full-day parking and \$1.00 for all night parking. Free municipal parking is abundantly available in fringe areas. Inexpensive busses shuttle frequently between these lots, the Public Square, and downtown Cleveland Hotel. Traffic during the morning and evening rush hours is congested. Public transportation and taxi service are relatively expensive but available.

DEADLINES

May 8—For receipt of requests for business meetings of divisions, boards, etc. by Launor F. Carter, Chairman, APA Program Committee.

May 8—For receipt of requests for special meetings, luncheons, dinners, etc. by Launor F. Carter, Chairman, APA Program Committee.

May 8—For receipt of requests for pre-convention sessions by Launor F. Carter, Chairman, APA Program Committee.

August 15—For receipt of room reservations by the APA Housing Bureau, 511 Terminal Tower, Cleveland 13, Ohio.

A THEORY OF VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT¹

DONALD E. SUPER

Teachers College, Columbia University

TWO and one-half years ago a colleague of mine at Columbia, Dr. Eli Ginzberg, an economist, shocked and even unintentionally annoyed many members of the National Vocational Guidance Association by stating, at the annual convention, that vocational counselors attempt to counsel concerning vocational choice without any theory as to how vocational choices are made. A year later Dr. Ginzberg published his monograph on *Occupational Choice*, in which he stated:

Vocational counselors are busy practitioners anxious to improve their counseling techniques . . . the research-minded among them devote what time they can to devising better techniques. They are not theoreticians working on the problem of how individuals make their occupational choices, for, though they have no bias against theory, they have little time to invest in developing one (10, p. 7).

Ginzberg continues, apropos of the fields of psychology and economics:

. . . there are good reasons why the problem [of how occupational choices are made] has not been a focus of investigation for psychology or economics. . . . The process has roots in the interplay of the individual and reality, and this field is only now beginning to be included in the boundaries of psychological inquiry. The obverse formulation applies to economics, which as a discipline concentrates on a detailed analysis of reality forces and satisfies itself with a few simplified assumptions about individual behavior (10, p. 7).

These conclusions were based partly on a review of the research literature which I did at his request, and partly on a number of discussions in which he, his research team, and I participated. Consequently, I have a feeling of responsibility, not for the conclusions which he drew, but for drawing my own conclusions and for sharing them with my colleagues in psychology and guidance.

Basis of Ginzberg's criticisms. It may help to point out that Ginzberg's conclusions were based on a review of the research literature which was designed to provide answers to specific questions

asked by his research team in order to help them plan their own research project. What synthesizing of results I did was undertaken to answer these questions. I did not attempt to answer the question "What theories underlie the principles of vocational guidance now generally accepted by practitioners?"

But I do agree with his analysis of the situation with regard to theory construction: we have done relatively little of it, and for the reasons he has suggested. However, this does not mean that we have operated without theory. It is the principal purpose of this paper to set forth a theory of vocational development, a theory inherent in and emergent from the research and philosophy of psychologists and counselors during the past two decades. But first I should like, as a help in formulating a more adequate theory, briefly to present the theory of occupational choice put forth by Ginzberg and his associates, to show how each of its elements had already been set forth by psychologists doing research in this field, and to point out some of its limitations.

THE GINZBERG THEORY

As Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod, and Herma summarize their theory of occupational choice, it contains four elements:

1. *Occupational choice is a developmental process which typically takes place over a period of some ten years.* This theory of Ginzberg's, it should be noted, is one of the points made by the official statement of the *Principles and Practices of Vocational Guidance* (33), first formulated by the National Vocational Guidance Association 25 years ago; it is a point stressed by Kitson in his *Psychology of Vocational Adjustment* (14), published in 1925; and, in 1942, in my own *Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment* (28) several pages are devoted to a discussion of the fact that "choosing an occupation . . . is a process which . . . may go on over a long period."

2. *The process is largely irreversible: experience*

¹ Presidential address at the annual meeting of the Division of Counseling and Guidance, American Psychological Association, Washington, D. C., September 1, 1952.

cannot be undone, for it results in investments of time, of money, and of ego; it produces changes in the individual. This second theory of Ginzberg's is clearly implied in Charlotte Buhler's 20-year-old theory of life stages (5), in Lehman and Witty's equally old studies of play interests (15), in Pressey, Janney, and Kuhlen's 13-year-old discussion of adolescent and adult development (20), and in my own 10-year-old text on vocational adjustment (28).

3. *The process of occupational choice ends in a compromise between interests, capacities, values, and opportunities.* This third theory of Ginzberg's is well illustrated in the practices of individual diagnosis developed by the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute 20 years ago and described by Paterson and Darley (19); it was further demonstrated and described by the Adjustment Service experiment 17 years ago (2); and it is basic to presentations of the use of diagnostic techniques in texts such as Bingham's (3) and mine (29), both of which appeared before the completion of Ginzberg's study. In fact, Frank Parsons (18), in 1909, discussed vocational counseling as a process of helping the individual to study both himself and possible occupational opportunities, and to work out a compromise between his abilities, interests, and opportunities. He called this last process "true reasoning."

4. Ginzberg's final theoretical formulation is that *there are three periods of occupational choice*: the period of *fantasy* choice, governed largely by the wish to be an adult; the period of *tentative* choices beginning at about age 11 and determined largely by interests, then by capacities, and then by values; and the period of *realistic* choices, beginning at about age 17, in which exploratory, crystallization, and specification phases succeed each other. Those who are acquainted with Lehman and Witty's early research in the change of interest with age (15), with Strong's more searching work (25) in the same area, with Sisson's research in the increasing realism of choice with increasing age (23), with Charlotte Buhler's research in life stages (5), and with the use made of these data by Pressey (20) or by me (28), will find these three choice periods familiar. The special contribution of Ginzberg and his associates is the postulation of the successive dominance of interests, capacities, and values as determinants of choice before reality begins to play a major role.

It is easy, and perhaps even rather petty, thus to take a theoretical contribution and demonstrate its ancestry, showing that there is nothing particularly original about it. This is, undoubtedly, the normal reaction to claims of originality. But originality is more generally the result of a rearrangement of the old than the actual creation of something new: the rearrangement is original because it brings out details or relationships which have been missed or points up new applications. Ginzberg's theory is indeed an important contribution: this seems clear to me, at least, as I recollect the struggle I had in writing parts of my *Dynamics of Vocational Adjustment* (a struggle which resulted from the lack of a theoretical structure and from inadequate research), and as I work on its revision in the light, among other things, of Ginzberg's theoretical formulation and the thinking which it has stimulated. I have used this critical approach to Ginzberg's work in order to demonstrate that we have not entirely lacked a theoretical basis for our work in vocational guidance, and to show that the elements of theory on which we have based our practice have been sound, at least in that they have foreshadowed the elements which one group of theorists used when they went about constructing a theory of occupational choice.

Limitations of Ginzberg's Theory

But this is not the whole story. Ginzberg's theory is likely to be harmful because of its limitations, limitations other than those of research design and numbers in his basic study.

First, it does not build adequately on previous work: for example, the extensive literature on the nature, development, and predictive value of inventoried interests is rather lightly dismissed.

Second, "choice" is defined as preference rather than as entry or some other implementation of choice, and hence means different things at different age levels. To the 14-year-old it means nothing more than preference, because at that age the need for realism is minimized by the fact that the preference does not need to be acted upon until the remote future. To the 21-year-old student of engineering, on the other hand, "choice" means a preference which has already been acted upon in entering engineering school, although the final action will come only with graduation and entry into a job. No wonder that reality plays a larger part

in choice at age 21, when, unlike choice at age 14, it is by definition a reality-tested choice!

A third defect in Ginzberg's theory emerges from these different meanings of the term "choice" at different ages: it is the falseness of the distinction between "choice" and "adjustment" which he and his research team make. The very fact that choice is a continuous process going on over a period of time, a process rather far removed from reality in early youth but involving reality in increasing degrees with increasing age, should make it clear that there is no sharp distinction between choice and adjustment. Instead, they blend in adolescence, with now the need to make a choice and now the need to make an adjustment predominating in the occupational or life situation.

Finally, a fourth limitation in the work of the Ginzberg team lies in the fact that, although they set out to study the process of occupational choice, and although they properly concluded that it is one of compromise between interests, capacities, values, and opportunities, they did not study or describe the compromise process. Surely this is the crux of the problem of occupational choice and adjustment: the nature of the compromise between self and reality, the degree to which and the conditions under which one yields to the other, and the way in which this compromise is effected. For the counseling psychologist's function is to help the individual to effect this compromise. He must not only know the factors which must be compromised and how these have been compromised in the experience of others, but also the dynamics of the compromising process, so that he may facilitate this process in his counselee with constructive results.

ELEMENTS OF AN ADEQUATE THEORY OF VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

An adequate theory of vocational choice and adjustment would synthesize the results of previous research insofar as they lend themselves to synthesis; it would take into account the continuity of the development of preferences and of the differences in the stages, choices, entry, and adjustment; it would explain the process through which interest, capacities, values, and opportunities are compromised. The second part of this paper will be devoted to a sketch of the main elements of such a theory of vocational development as they appear in the literature, and the third and final part will consist of an attempt to synthesize these elements

in an adequate theory. The term "development" is used rather than "choice," because it comprehends the concepts of preference, choice, entry, and adjustment. There seem to be a dozen elements to a theory of vocational development: they are taken up in sequence.

Individual differences. One of the basic elements of a theory of vocational development has been the theory of individual differences, a cornerstone of modern educational and vocational psychology. Kitson based much of his early *Psychology of Vocational Adjustment* (14) on this theory and on the findings on which it was based. It was essential to the work of the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute (19). It is surely unnecessary to document the fact of individual differences in aptitudes, interests, and values, or the significance of these differences for vocational development.

Multipotentiality. A second basic element of theory has been the concept of the occupational multipotentiality of the individual. It was first documented for intelligence by Army psychologists in World War I, and was stressed by Kitson in his early textbook. It was documented for interests by Strong's work on the classification of occupational interests (26). It is a well-established fact and a basic assumption of vocational counseling that each person has the potential for success and satisfaction in a number of occupations.

Occupational ability patterns. The existence of occupational ability patterns, that is, the fact that abilities and interests fall into patterns which distinguish one occupation from another, was established by the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute (19) and has been confirmed in other studies, particularly those of the United States Employment Service (8). People have been found to prefer, enter, remain in, like, and succeed most consistently in occupations for which they have appropriate patterns of traits. The theory of the patterning of aptitudes and interests within individuals and within occupational families and the significance of this patterning for choice, entry, and adjustment are widely accepted and applied by counselors and psychologists today.

Identification and the role of models. Much has been made of the importance of identification with parents and other adults in individual development by psychoanalytically oriented writers, and this concept is widely used by counseling psychologists

regardless of orientation. It has been little documented, however, in psychological research in the vocational choice and adjustment process. The work of Friend and Haggard (9) and a study by Stewart (1) do, however, provide some objective basis for the theory that the childhood and adolescent identifications play a part in shaping vocational interests, and also provide role models which facilitate the development and implementation of a self-concept, provided that the required abilities and opportunities are present.

Continuity of adjustment. The continuity of the adjustment process was stressed by Kitson in his 1925 textbook as a result of his analysis of the careers of men whose success was attested to by being listed in *Who's Who in America*. The fact that adolescents and adults face a succession of emerging problems as they go through life, and that some of these problems are peculiar to the various life stages, was brought out by the studies of life stages made by Charlotte Buhler (5) and by those of occupational mobility conducted by Davidson and Anderson (7), Strong (26), and Miller and Form (16). And theories of the development of interests have been formulated by Carter (6) and by Bordin (4), theories which I modified slightly in my book on testing and upon which I drew in describing the process of vocational choice and adjustment in a speech first made at Ft. Collins, Colorado, in 1949, revised several times, and later published in the journal *Occupations*, under the title of "Vocational Adjustment: Implementing a Self-Concept" (30). These formulations are drawn on again as the cement for the various elements which need to be brought together in a theory of vocational development and as an explanation of the process of compromise between self and reality.

Life stages. The work of psychologists and sociologists in describing the stages through which growth and development proceed, and in showing how these stages bear on the process of vocational choice and adjustment, has already been referred to. It was drawn on heavily in the text by Pressey, Janney, and Kuhlen (20), in my own first text (28), in Ginzberg's research (10), and in a recent text on *Industrial Sociology* by Miller and Form (16) which is as important for its original contribution and synthesis as it is annoying for its bias against anything that does not conform to sociology as they conceive of it. Buhler's theory of de-

velopment through the exploratory, establishment, maintenance, and decline stages is translated into occupational terminology by Miller and Form, who also documented the theory for American careers, while Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrod, and Herma have developed in more detail the phases of the exploratory stage. This latter theory needs confirmation with a larger sample and more objective procedures, in view of Small's (24) recent failure to confirm it with a somewhat different adolescent sample, but the general theory of life stages is basic to vocational guidance and will be drawn on heavily in my attempt at synthesis.

Career patterns. The formulation of a theory of career patterns resulted from the occupational manifestations of life stages first documented by Davidson and Anderson (7), added to for a select group by Terman's genetic studies of gifted persons (31), and then pointed up by Ginzberg and his associates (10) and by Miller and Form (16). Career pattern theory appears to be a key element in the theoretical basis of vocational guidance, for it gives the counselor basic assumptions concerning the social, educational, and occupational mobility of his counselees, and it enables him to foresee types of problems which a given client is likely to encounter in establishing a career.

Development can be guided. Another basic element in a theory of vocational development is the theory that development through the life stages can be guided. Although there is ample evidence that ability is to some extent inherited, and that personality too has its roots in inherited neural and endocrine make-up, there is also good evidence that manifested aptitudes and functioning personality are the result of the interaction of the organism and the environment. It is a basic theory of guidance as we know it today that the development of the individual can be aided and guided by the provision of adequate opportunities for the utilization of aptitudes and for the development of interests and personality traits.

Development the result of interaction. That the nature of the interaction between the individual and his environment is by no means simple has been brought out by a variety of investigations ranging from studies of the effects of foster homes and of education on intelligence (17) to evaluations of the effects of occupational information and of test interpretation on vocational plans and on self-understanding (13). The realization of this fact

and the acceptance of this principle have led to a greater humility in our claims for counseling and to a greater degree of sophistication in our use of guidance techniques.

The dynamics of career patterns. The interaction of the individual and his environment during the growth and early exploratory stages, little understood though the process actually is, has been much more adequately investigated than has this same process during the late exploratory, establishment, and maintenance stages. We still know relatively little about the dynamics of career patterns. Terman's work (31) tells us something about the role of intelligence, Strong's (26) about interests, and Hollingshead's (11) about social status, but no adequate studies have been made of the interaction of these and other factors in determining whether the individual in question will have a career pattern which is typical or atypical of his parental socioeconomic group. It was partly with this objective that an investigation known as the Career Pattern Study was launched in Middletown, New York, last year.

Job satisfaction: individual differences, status, and role. Early theories of job satisfaction stressed the role of intelligence and interest in adjustment to the occupation or to the job, building on studies of the relationships between these traits and occupational stability such as those made by Scott (22, ch. 26) and by Strong (26). More recently other investigations such as the Hawthorne (21) and Yankee City studies (32), anticipated in this respect by Hoppock's work (12) and by a minor study of mine (27) in job satisfaction, have played up the importance of the status given to the worker by his job, status both in the sense of group membership or belongingness and of prestige.

While researchers interested in the role of one kind of factor or another have tended to emphasize the signal importance of that type of factor, there is nothing inherently contradictory or mutually exclusive in these findings. They can all be included in a comprehensive theory of job satisfaction or work adjustment. This is the theory that satisfaction in one's work and on one's job depends on the extent to which the work, the job, and the way of life that goes with them, enable one to play the kind of role that one wants to play. It is, again, the theory that vocational development is the development of a self concept, that the process of vocational adjustment is the process of implement-

ing a self concept, and that the degree of satisfaction attained is proportionate to the degree to which the self concept has been implemented.

Work is a way of life. This leads to a final theory, one that has been more widely accepted and stressed by sociologists than by psychologists, but familiar to most counselors and considered basic by some writers in the field. This is the theory that work is a way of life, and that adequate vocational and personal adjustment are most likely to result when both the nature of the work itself and the way of life that goes with it (this is, the kind of community, home, leisure-time activities, friends, etc.) are congenial to the aptitudes, interests, and values of the person in question. In the estimation of many, this is a basic element in a theory of vocational development.

A THEORY OF VOCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Now that we have surveyed the diverse elements of a theory of vocational development, there remains the final task of organizing them into a summary statement of a comprehensive theory. The theory can be stated in a series of ten propositions:

1. People differ in their abilities, interests, and personalities.
2. They are qualified, by virtue of these characteristics, each for a number of occupations.
3. Each of these occupations requires a characteristic pattern of abilities, interests, and personality traits, with tolerances wide enough, however, to allow both some variety of occupations for each individual and some variety of individuals in each occupation.
4. Vocational preferences and competencies, the situations in which people live and work, and hence their self concepts, change with time and experience (although self concepts are generally fairly stable from late adolescence until late maturity), making choice and adjustment a continuous process.
5. This process may be summed up in a series of life stages characterized as those of growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline, and these stages may in turn be subdivided into (a) the fantasy, tentative, and realistic phases of the exploratory stage, and (b) the trial and stable phases of the establishment stage.
6. The nature of the career pattern (that is, the occupational level attained and the sequence, frequency, and duration of trial and stable jobs) is determined by the individual's parental socioeco-

conomic level, mental ability, and personality characteristics, and by the opportunities to which he is exposed.

7. Development through the life stages can be guided, partly by facilitating the process of maturation of abilities and interests and partly by aiding in reality testing and in the development of the self concept.

8. The process of vocational development is essentially that of developing and implementing a self concept: it is a compromise process in which the self concept is a product of the interaction of inherited aptitudes, neural and endocrine make-up, opportunity to play various roles, and evaluations of the extent to which the results of role playing meet with the approval of superiors and fellows.

9. The process of compromise between individual and social factors, between self concept and reality, is one of role playing, whether the role is played in fantasy, in the counseling interview, or in real life activities such as school classes, clubs, part-time work, and entry jobs.

10. Work satisfactions and life satisfactions depend upon the extent to which the individual finds adequate outlets for his abilities, interests, personality traits, and values; they depend upon his establishment in a type of work, a work situation, and a way of life in which he can play the kind of role which his growth and exploratory experiences have led him to consider congenial and appropriate.

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SOME OBSERVATIONS ON THE ORIENTATION OF CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY¹

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WHEN your President invited me to talk he wrote: "We have been concerned particularly with professional aspects of the field, and are concentrating this year on trying to have the state legislature pass a bill providing for certification of psychologists. Some topics which would be of interest to most or all of our members would be: the use of psychological research by psychiatrists, implementation of a national (or state) mental health program, current trends in education for clinical psychologists and psychiatrists, etc." Besides giving me an extremely broad range of topics from which to select, these suggestions reveal the wide scope of the interests of psychologists. This appears to indicate a growing professionalism, a preoccupation with practical problems, and a lively awareness of the social implications of psychology.

Clinical psychology is in the process of defining its role. The public is not sure what clinical psychologists are, nor are psychiatrists. I should like to present some observations to help stimulate constructive thinking toward the solution of problems common to psychology and psychiatry. These observations are based on reactions of many psychiatrists to clinical psychology. I can assure you that psychiatrists, in general, want clinical psychology, but many psychiatrists are not sure what the intent of clinical psychology is, i.e., the type of work it wishes to do nor where it wishes to do this. Psychologists are wanted because the field of mental health is vast and undermanned. It is felt that the addition of well-trained psychologists to the mental health team will promote progress in the field.

Perhaps we are too close to the recent past to determine the factors responsible for the rise of the clinical psychology movement. Social need

probably had much to do with it. General insecurity and anxiety seem to characterize our times. War and threat of war and social upheavals cause man to seek relief. The growing interest in psychiatry and the mental hygiene movement are evidences of this. Other factors were the shortage of psychiatrists in the last war and following it and the emergence of psychologists who had more competence in the field of mental health.

It appears, I think, to most psychiatrists that psychology has been meeting its challenge by developing essentially along sound lines. Of the greatest significance has been the preoccupation with problems of training. Any profession stands or falls on the competence of its members to carry out a particular job. The person in need of services seeks out the individual who has the reputation of being able to satisfy these best. And the serious individual seeking training also goes to those centers for training which have the reputation of providing the best training. For the current year about one-half of the medical interns are found in one-quarter of the training hospitals, one-quarter of the hospitals get no interns, and of the remaining one-half of the hospitals with training programs only about 10 per cent fill their quotas. The character of the clinical psychology movement will be determined almost exclusively by the quality and type of training given its members.

It was also a wise decision to have this training sponsored by and under the control of universities and colleges. These are the recognized training centers for the learned professions. The university environment with its traditions of learning, its humanistic and scientific orientations, its spirit of free inquiry and research supplies the most congenial and natural environment for a movement of this type. There is also available in some universities contact with other professional groups such as medicine.

The emphasis upon selection of students who are

¹ Read at the meeting of the Illinois Psychological Association, Urbana, Ill., October 18, 1952.

to enter the field has created a favorable impression. It is hard to know how much has been accomplished here that is new or different from traditional procedures, but the main point is that there has been genuine appreciation of the necessity of getting the right sort of persons into the field of clinical psychology.

One of the most solid points of clinical psychology is the scientific attitude and research emphasis provided by the tradition of academic psychology. This tradition must not be lost; without it clinical psychology would degenerate into a technical procedure which would have to look elsewhere for its ideas.

But there are doubts, too, about clinical psychology, on the part of psychiatry. Here, as number one, must be listed the lack of definition as to the proper field of clinical psychology. There is resistance in psychology to such definition because it may prove to be a narrowing or restrictive influence. Shakow writes, "In a period of remarkable public interest in the general area of mental health, a restricted and rigid definition might tend . . . to hinder natural growth" (3). The lack of precision causes people to ask, "What is a clinical psychologist?" The answer, of course, varies. It is usually related to the contacts the replier may have had with psychologists. One psychiatrist writes, "Unfortunately, the public cannot differentiate between a psychologist and a psychiatrist. Therefore, any recognition given the clinical psychologist will inevitably react to the detriment of the psychiatrist."

Both psychiatry and psychology must share the responsibility for this confusion. Psychology, as a scientific movement, began as the study of the mind, then became the study of behavior. Clinical psychology is concerned with behavior problems and maladjustment. Psychiatry, as a professional activity, began chiefly with psychotic patients and worked from there out to the neuroses, the behavior disorders of children, character disturbances, psychosomatic conditions, and then in a minor way to international relations. So psychology and psychiatry tend to fuse and diffuse and the public gets confused.

Psychiatry has taken the sick person as its central unifying field of operation. Thus it is medical in orientation. The goals of medicine have been fairly sharply defined since ancient times as the postponement of death and the reduction in morbidity. Death and morbidity are matters of great

individual concern. Thus most psychiatrists treat individuals who are mentally sick persons.

How can we get recognition of the fact that there is an area of overlap between maladjustment and sickness? At many points the separation is blurred. This seems to me to call for a breadth of training on both sides. But more importantly, it seems to me to call for a fusion of effort to produce a joint attack on both illness and maladjustment.

As long as the clinical psychologist feels that he has a special competence in the areas of research, and in the giving of various examinations which make a contribution to diagnosis there is not much conflict with psychiatry. It is only when the psychologist begins to think more seriously of therapy, particularly in private practice, that questions and opposition arise. This conflict expresses itself in the discussions that have been taking place on the subject of the legal status of psychologists.

Let me quote from some letters I have received in the past few months on the subject.

It is my opinion that one cannot separate the psychological functions of a patient from his total function. Attempts to treat solely the psychological aspects of an individual are always dangerous and result in inadequate treatment. As this is the only type of treatment that a psychologist could possibly offer the patient, it is easy to see where their program meets with what I believe to be valid objections.

Again,

Inasmuch as the clinical psychologist depends upon the psychiatrist for his training and opportunities to work in the clinical field, it behooves the physician to set the limits for this program and for the psychologist to recognize his debt for this opportunity and accept these limits. Practice under supervision can never be worked out on a realistic basis to protect the patient or the psychologist. This attitude has grown out of a close working relationship established in institutional practice but at present psychologists are setting up their own offices for private practice, thus changing the entire picture and calling for a new point of view and action to control this. The psychologist should be warned of the tremendous responsibility he is asking for in order that he may know that the responsibility for the health of the community rests with the physician and that he is asking for a part in usurping this role, not in assisting it. . . . The turning over of the psyche to the psychologist is separating the psyche from the soma. In medical schools we teach that the mind cannot be separated from the body. These inter-relationships have been known since ancient times and have been the source of much experimental work since Claude Bernard. The work by Cannon in the 1930's has recently been enhanced by Hans Selye and others. Now comes a group which proposes to divorce the mind from the body—to say that one who has never seen the healing process in action in other parts of the body is

qualified to work with the healing mind as though it existed free in space. Psychopathology is a branch of clinical pathology and the physician is still the only one who should be entrusted with it.

Another letter reads,

This whole problem is not related only to psychologists—there are others in the so-called ancillary services who have been taking on more and more responsibilities which are clearly in the realm of treatment. Perhaps we have erred in not defining limits so that the training of ancillary workers will include such limits just as it does in the training of the nurse in her relationship to the doctor and to the patient in terms of her role in treatment.

Another psychiatrist writes,

I imagine you have seen the article in *Collier's*, March 22 issue, concerning "quack psychologists." It seems to me that this is a piece of propaganda for the private practice of psychologists in the care of emotionally ill people. The only time that the medical profession or psychiatry is mentioned is in terms of turning psychotic people over to psychiatrists. The article purports to expose "quack psychologists" who buy two dollar diplomas and hang them on their walls. It indicates quite clearly that mentally ill people should see psychologists, and that the American Psychological Association will put them in touch with their members. It was written with the collaboration, or at least the blessing of the secretary of the American Psychological Association, and if it represents the point of view of the so-called responsible members of the American Psychological Association, we may as well recognize that these people feel it appropriate to take over the care of neurotic individuals.

Still another letter says,

We have a rather tremendous file of material (in the office of the state medical society) relating to the subject of clinical psychologists. The reaction of the Committee on Public Policy is that no licensure should be granted to this group but it should be accorded some recognition through certification. Some changes in the Medical Practice Act may be advocated so that it would be clear that clinical psychologists engage in a phase of the practice of medicine.

An additional one says,

We are organizing to influence the legislature to include the diagnosis and treatment of mental and nervous disorders in the Medical Practice Act. This should safeguard the patient.

Finally,

The whole subject bores me. I first encountered it in Europe in connection with lay analysis and now again in this country in the form of clinical psychology. Anyone who wishes to treat sick people should get a medical degree.

These quotes must not be taken as a survey of American psychiatry toward the subject of clinical psychology. But they do show what some of the

current protest attitudes are. Many of these quotes came from letters written on stationery of a state or branch psychiatric association. The letters highlight a comment one hears occasionally. At the local level psychiatrists and psychologists seem to get along well but at the level of their official organizations—the level of social institutions—there is disagreement.

We should expect this disagreement at the institutional level. Though the problems raised by the letters are varied and complex there is frequent reference to the question of responsibility. He who is given ultimate therapeutic responsibility must meet certain legal requirements. It is worthy of note, too, that when ultimate responsibility is the point under discussion the problem immediately transcends psychiatry and psychology and now concerns medicine as a whole. This at once involves county and state medical societies and the AMA. In this broadened frame of reference the legal status of psychologists tends to be placed alongside other groups which may desire to enter the therapeutic field. Though each case may be considered on its merits there is a halo effect at work here. Should psychologists be certified or licensed? Should biochemists be licensed? In what way are these groups different from osteopaths, naturopaths, chiropractors, etc.? Usually, there is opposition to licensing these other groups because it is felt that, no matter how competent the members of the group may be in their particular area, they have only a part of the training which must go into the broader preparation for diagnosis, differential diagnosis, and therapy. If a favorable attitude develops toward affording legal status to the new group, certification rather than licensure is usually preferred because ultimate responsibility is left with the physician. If licensure is sponsored there is the tendency to say that this shall be conditioned in some way such as placing physicians on the licensing board, or by saying that the particular form of practice must be under the direction of or supervised by a licensed physician. Theoretically, in this way the welfare of the patient is protected.

This traditional arrangement between medicine, or its specialty subgroups, and the "ancillary services" has seemed to be disturbing to some psychologists. This has taken the form of objections to limitations placed upon independent practice. The *Ad Hoc* Report, Principle 6.2, reads, "Psychology as a profession will resist all attempts at restrictive legislation which promises to limit unduly or to abro-

gate the psychologist's opportunity to function as an independent professional person." It is a little hard to know whether this is a warning or a declaration of independence. Principle 5.4 together with its footnote on first reading appears to be a model of restraint and places the emphasis properly on competence and training: "Psychologists will not hold themselves forth as qualified to function as psychologists in independent (i.e., unsupervised and individual) practice until fully qualified in terms of both training and supervised experience in their specialty." And "Private independent practice does not represent the most desirable pattern of development for applied psychology" (1). Unsupervised and individual practice is not to be encouraged. It is not the most desirable, but it is a definite possibility and there is pressure on the part of some psychologists—how much it is hard to say—for licensure. And so the essential conflict with psychiatry would still seem to remain.

In diagnosis and treatment no one profession is completely independent, i.e., unsupervised and individual. There are only degrees of competence which have a loose relationship to degree of independence. The independence is more structuralized in social institutional relationships than real and perhaps takes concrete form in a pecking order.

What happens when a patient comes to a psychiatrist with a complaint? First is the problem of diagnosis. Now what does the psychiatrist do? He takes a history of the present illness and here he is dependent on the patient and his cooperation and frankness. To get an adequate history he must ask the proper questions. Thus he is dependent upon his own medical and psychiatric training. If the patient is a child the parent must give the history, or if the patient is uncooperative or psychotic or is suspected of grossly distorting facts, other informants may be called upon. Similar comments are relevant with regard to the past medical and personal histories. An expression of the dependence of the physician is found in the profession of social work, to which is delegated in a large part of hospital psychiatric practice some of the responsibility for securing relevant historical material. Then comes the mental status examination which involves dependence on previous psychiatric training and experience. This is true also of the physical and neurological examinations. If now a diagnosis has not been reached, and this is frequently the case, consultations and examinations are sought from others. A laboratory examination of the spinal fluid may

be desired. A determination of intelligence or of personality assessment by means of projective tests reveals dependence upon the psychologist. An X-ray of the skull entails dependence upon the radiologist. A question of epilepsy calls in the electroencephalographer. Continued careful observation of the daily behavior depends upon the reports of well-trained nurses. How is all this diverse material evaluated? It is evaluated by the psychiatrist in terms of his past training and past experience, which is a reflection of a whole host of dependencies. Or the diagnosis may be reached in a staff conference. A staff conference is a kind of mutual dependency session in which a diagnosis is reached through discussion. After diagnosis comes treatment which reflects dependency upon training and experience and upon the special skills of various members of the staff. Some treatment responsibilities, such as modification of family or parental attitudes, are shared or conducted entirely by the social worker, to the nurse goes the management of therapy on the wards, to the occupational therapy worker certain craft activities thought to have beneficial effect, to the recreational therapist certain socialization attempts, to a psychologist, certain aspects of psychotherapy. So the psychiatrist is dependent on one or all of these for treatment. The psychiatrist can scarcely be regarded as an independent person or as practicing in an independent, i.e., unsupervised and individual manner.

If by independence is meant hanging out a shingle and taking on all comers, holding out oneself as being able to diagnose and treat mental illness, and this is what psychiatrists think psychologists mean by independence, then it is precisely this that is objected to. The American Psychiatric Association is on record as being strongly opposed to independent practice of psychotherapy by clinical psychologists and feels that psychotherapy, when done by clinical psychologists, should be carried out in a setting where adequate psychiatric safeguards are provided. The reasons usually listed for such a position are: (a) Organic disease will be overlooked either initially or in the course of treatment. (b) Psychiatric disorder will be overlooked initially and in the course of treatment. (c) Psychotherapy is not an innocuous procedure but may lead to dangerous conditions such as depression with suicidal tendencies. (d) The psychologist who wishes to do psychotherapy can do this in psychiatric institutions or under psychiatric direction at the present time.

Legal recognition does not make a profession independent. It now comes under legal regulation and must conform to certain requirements.

Possibly we have been brought to an impasse on the issue of therapy and are entering a phase when people begin to think of strategy to accomplish their respective aims. These attitudes of psychiatrists and psychologists are, however, realities that must be recognized in resolving the therapy issue.

It is helpful when there is disagreement to take a brief look at the field of mental health. About 600,000 persons are hospitalized in mental hospitals in this country. Their care costs about \$600,000,000 per year. The hospitals are overcrowded and as soon as new capacity is provided this immediately fills up and the overcrowding continues. Mental disease is still a subject which is talked about in hushed tones or just not talked about. Recently an Iowa City newspaper carried the story of a woman who had an inoperable cancer and who was cheerfully making the best of her remaining days by doing the things she had never gotten around to doing. Her consoling thought was that she felt she was not the most unfortunate person in the world since she did not have a mental illness. There is an insufficiency of mental health clinics. There is a lack of trained personnel. It is a common belief that if only buildings, ambulances, and operating rooms are provided, adequate personnel will "turn up." This, of course, is false. In 1951 four dollars for research were available per mental patient, whereas there were 27 for tuberculosis, 27 for cancer, 28 for polio.

It ought to be possible to fit the psychologist into this total scheme without friction between psychiatry and psychology. The psychologist has a tradition of research and scientific inquiry, some are experts in public opinion and how public opinion can be changed. More money is needed for research and services. Whatever disagreement exists seems trivial in face of the total need. There ought to be a greater unification of effort.

It has always seemed to me that the most significant area for collaboration is research. Far too much of psychiatry is a clinical art, far too little based on sound research. It is very embarrassing to meet one's therapeutic failures on the street without a convenient alley down which to escape. It is frustrating to discover to what factors patients sometimes ascribe good results. Some time ago we hospitalized a patient in whom we made a diagnosis of paranoid schizophrenia. He was a highly intelli-

gent man, with a good many personality assets, who seemed capable of developing deep insight into his condition. He was treated with an uncovering type of psychotherapy over a period of several months and when no progress was apparent he was given a course of electric shock. This brought no change. He was then given a series of insulin comas together with psychotherapy of an acting-out type when he was recovering from the comas. This also was unsuccessful. Because he had a well-developed delusional system and powerful homicidal impulses directed against a specific person, we transferred him to a state hospital with the recommendation that he not be released until it was absolutely certain that the homicidal impulses were inactive. About three months later the state hospital requested we re-examine him. It was perfectly obvious that he had recovered. The delusions and homicidal impulses were gone; no signs of schizophrenia were present. I asked him what had been done for him and he told me that he had been able to get a new perspective on his trouble and now regarded his former way of thinking and feeling as false and foolish. How did he get this new perspective? Through deep breathing exercises which relaxed him!

It is possible, of course, to multiply the illustrations of the need for tested knowledge almost without end. Faced with this situation I am inclined to agree with Rapaport when he says that "clinical services and teaching, insofar as they deplete all our resources of research personnel and finances should be considered at this time luxuries" (2).

A group of psychiatrists and psychologists have been discussing some aspects of collaborative research between psychiatrists and psychologists.² Collaborative research has its interpersonal problems because it involves harmonious cooperation. Each member of the partnership is able to contribute something which the other cannot. Thus each member is able to appreciate the contribution of the other and to share equally in the recognition that comes from the research.

In its most complete form collaboration implies the planning, executing, and reporting of the project as a joint effort or achievement. Collaboration also means research which is planned in concert, but is carried out by separate groups or individuals and then published as part of one program or as

² Report formulated by the Committee on Psychopathology of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. To be published.

parts of related but still separate enterprises. Another level of collaboration is seen when separate researches are fused and jointly reported. Collaboration also occurs when the research is planned, executed, and published separately, but the several individuals keep in touch at various stages of their respective projects. The chief value of collaboration is that our research problems seem so complex as to require many brains, many hands, and many differing skills and techniques for their solution. The differing backgrounds of psychologists and psychiatrists should enrich and give a more complete perspective to the projects.

There are certain barriers which may have to be overcome before we can get more research. There are not enough research psychiatrists. Further, one hesitates to attempt to produce psychopathology in patients, since they have already shown themselves vulnerable to stress by the fact that they are patients. It is also difficult to produce psychopathology in animals which, aside from some behavioral aspects, resembles what our patients show. Faced with this the psychiatrist is apt to turn research over to the psychologist or to a biochemist. This is highly unrealistic. The psychiatrist must promote the research philosophy. He must enter into agreements with medical schools, hospitals, foundations, so that research becomes a much more important activity. My colleague, Dr. Jacques Gottlieb, who is addressing the Mental Hospital Institute next week in Columbus, is stressing the importance of research to hospital administrators. He is saying that the superintendents must draw together persons with the necessary skills and backgrounds to carry out the projects, that psychiatry stands at the threshold of new research opportunities.

We ought also to give some thought to the interpersonal dynamics involved in collaboration, for many such projects seem to fail. One reason is that one person, the "idea man," disparages the man trained in methodology and techniques as being unimaginative, while the methodologist thinks of the idea man as an impractical and naive dreamer. A project fails because one member of the team is domineering or tries to make himself the center of the research nucleus. There may not have been adequate planning at the start concerning the division of labor. One member of the team may be brought into the project at a late stage of organization and prosecution of the work and may have a difficult time becoming a real participant because he enters a situation already structuralized.

So he has the choice of withdrawing and incurring ill will or staying and being thought of as overcritical.

Helpful cohesive devices are group planning of projects, progress reports to the group, and group critiques of papers prior to publication. Intragroup seminars and journal clubs are also group integrating devices. Ideally there grows up a mutual appreciation of the other member's basic conceptions, his professional goals, and a recognition of his limitations and assets. Thus there comes a free acknowledgment of contributions from other members of the group. The group then achieves a kind of professional maturity where status is no longer important.

Over the past two years there has been a growing concern for research in psychiatry. The American Psychiatric Association has been having a series of conferences throughout the country devoted to methodology in psychiatric research. Research is being highlighted at the next Annual Mental Hospital Institute. This growing recognition of the necessity of research in psychiatry suggests the pathway by which psychology can make its greatest contribution to the field of mental health. Research has dignity, it has status. Psychology has a research tradition.

Some of us have said that psychiatry rests upon three main disciplines, medicine, psychology, and social anthropology. In this framework psychology is conceived of as dealing broadly with behavior, but more particularly with psychodynamics. Psychodynamics is mainly now a clinical and speculative subject. The challenge to psychology is to help put it on a scientific basis. There is little evidence that the job can be done alone by psychiatry. We ought to get on with one of our most important functions, i.e., to establish more reliable knowledge by way of activity at national, state, and local levels for the joint promotion of research.

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DO PSYCHOLOGISTS READ? THE CASE OF THE *PSYCHOLOGICAL BULLETIN*¹

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PSYCHOLOGISTS have a strong desire to publish. Year after year the annual report of the Council of Editors of the APA indicates that the editors of the APA journals receive many more manuscripts than they can publish in their allotted number of pages, and nearly every year the Board of Directors and the Council of Representatives are requested to increase the publication budget.

We know then that psychologists write. But do they read? On this topic we have little or no information. We do know that even without entering a library they have access to a considerable body of literature, since certain journals are received by the entire membership. By how many psychologists are the published materials read?

We have attempted to answer this question in regard to the *Psychological Bulletin*. A mail poll was conducted among a random sample of the APA. The sample consisted of every tenth name in the alphabetical membership list of the 1951 Directory, which lists 8,554 members. To each of the 856 persons thus chosen, a letter was sent requesting the recipient to indicate on an accompanying checklist those items of which he had read the major part. The checklist contained *Bulletin* publications arranged under five categories. They were: 11 general articles; 10 short articles and notes; 2 special reviews; 30 book reviews; and 6 film reviews; a total of 59 items. All of these items had appeared in the 12 months preceding the mailing of the poll which took place on October 29, 1952. The checklist included all general articles, all special reviews, and all film reviews which were published during this period. It did not seem feasible to list all of the short articles, notes, and book reviews which appeared. In choosing items for the

latter categories, we started with the most recent (September 1952) issue of the *Bulletin* and worked backward until the desired number was obtained. No other type of selection was involved.

Of the 856 blanks which were mailed, 50.4 per cent were returned by November 26, 1952. The poll was closed on that date because returns had practically ceased. We have no way of knowing whether the reading habits of those who responded differed from those who did not respond. We can, however, specify the limits by which the total sample *could* differ from the results we obtained. If none of those who failed to respond had read a given item in the *Bulletin*, then our percentage for that item is double what it should be. If all of those who did *not* respond had read a given item (in the *Bulletin*), then the percentage of readership for that item should be increased to a point half-way between the reported figures and 100 per cent. It is possible that those who did not respond were not very different in regard to reading habits from those who did respond and that our figures may be representative of APA membership.

Some of the major findings are the following:

Read one or more	Percentage
Film reviews	44
Special reviews	59
Notes or short articles	70
Book reviews	89
General articles	92
Read something	97

These figures are rather higher than we had expected.² Perhaps even more surprising is the fact that some individual articles, notes, and reviews

¹ Grateful acknowledgment is made to the James McKeen Cattell Fund for a research grant defraying the expenses of the project of which this study is a part. We wish also to express our thanks for the assistance rendered by B. Brown and E. Karcag.

² The authors wish to emphasize that they are in no way responsible for what to them was the surprisingly high readership of the *Bulletin*. The sample of materials used in the poll was taken from the period in which Lyle Lanier was editor. The present authors became editor and book review editor, respectively, in January, 1953. Insofar as the results here reported are favorable to this journal, they must be attributed to the contributors and to the editorship of Lanier.

were read by one-half of the respondents. Three of the 11 general articles were read by roughly 50 per cent; four others by 33 per cent or greater. One of the special reviews and one of the regular book reviews also achieved approximately the 50 per cent score, the former 48 per cent and the latter 58 per cent. Exclusive of film reviews (which appeared for the first time in the September 1952 issue), 18 items were checked by more than one-third of the persons replying; these included 12 regular book reviews and the second special review. In short, of the total items, 40 per cent were read by one-third or more of the respondents.

The subject matter of the materials which elicited this degree of attention was quite varied. In view of the large proportion of psychologists who are interested in clinical psychology, one could correctly assume that some widely read materials would be in this area. Included among the high-readership items are Lindzey's article on the TAT, and reviews of McClelland's *Personality* and of Roger's *Client-Centered Therapy*. But other equally popular items lie primarily in other fields. Brown and Farber's article on emotion and Osgood's paper on meaning each were read by more than one-third of the respondents. Among the highly read reviews of nonclinical books were *Studies in Social Psychology in World War II*, Stevens' *Handbook of Experimental Psychology*, Tolman's *Collected Papers*, Rohrer and Sherif's *Social Psychology at the Crossroads*, Helson's *Theoretical Foundations of Psychology*, Miller's *Language and Communication*, and Humphrey's *Thinking*. And this is not a complete list of the items which were read by one-third or more of those responding.

There has been much talk and some fear that the APA has been breaking up into special-interest groups, and that psychology lacks a central core. The complex divisional structure of the APA may suggest this interpretation. But the largest division of the APA, the Division of Clinical and Abnormal Psychology, comprises only 14 per cent of the total membership. If the next largest division, the Division of Counseling and Guidance, be added without regard for overlapping membership, the two combined would total 21 per cent of the membership. Several divisions representing diverse fields would have to be combined to comprise half of the membership. Of course, such additions are of doubtful value, since they ignore multiple membership in two or more divisions and ignore the

large number of members who belong to no division at all. But these figures may, at least, highlight the fact that one cannot readily account for the large reader-audience of some materials in terms of their appeal to special groups. It may be that the APA is breaking up into special-interest groups, but one would not suspect this from the reader-audience of the *Psychological Bulletin*.

To repeat: if our figures are representative of the APA, some items are read by half the membership, many are read by one-third or more, and these publications are in diverse fields. These facts belie the claims of narrow specialization. That half of our professional group should read the same article or review seems to us to indicate that in some respects, at least, there is a high degree of community of interest among psychologists.

What were the least read items? The items having the poorest record were checked by approximately 9 per cent of the respondents: one short note and one book review. No item was read by fewer than 9 per cent, which means it may have been read by approximately 770 persons.

With the exception of "special reviews," the seldom read items appeared in every category. Only one general article, which dealt with statistics, was read by as few as 12 per cent of the respondents. In the main, the short articles and notes were infrequently read. The highest readership attained by any item in this group was 32 per cent. Most short articles were statistical. While many statistical articles were seldom read, the second most popular short article was nevertheless statistical. The readership of book reviews ranges from 9 to 58 per cent; of film reviews, from 12 to 27 per cent.

Our letter invited the randomly chosen subjects to write comments. Ninety-five persons responded to this invitation. While some signed their names, the majority remained anonymous.

Very few persons indicated that they had any difficulty recognizing the items which they had read. Apparently the checklist did not seriously tax the respondents' memory. In one or two cases, respondents indicated that they referred to the journal to refresh their memory. Another indication that memory errors were not serious is provided by the fact that approximately the same readership was attained by the more remote items as by the more recent ones. For example, the two most widely read evaluative articles were those by Lindzey and by Lazarus, Deese, and Osler; the

former had appeared in January 1952 and the latter in July 1952. When the 30 reviews are divided into two halves according to the date of publication, it is found that the average readership for the earlier and the later reviews is 28 and 26 per cent, respectively, which is an insignificant difference.

Some persons explained why they had read so little. Thus: "I am retired and not in good health so am unable to read the journal articles as I used to do." "This is not a fair description of my usual reading. I've been on a new job, and have had little time to read." Such comments suggest that failure to read did not act as a serious deterrent to complying with our request for data.

A rather large number of the comments were favorable either to the journal as a whole or to one or more specific features. In all, there were 139 comments made by these 95 respondents; 36 were neutral in context. Of the 103 value judgments, 70 were laudatory in their tone. By far most praise was given to book reviews (37 individuals), with no negative reactions. The comprehensive evaluative surveys ranked second, with 17 individuals favoring them and only 3 respondents applying censure. The film reviews elicited few responses, four in favor, and three unfavorable to them.

The unfavorable comments were the most picturesque. One psychologist stated, "I have found so little of interest that I have mostly consigned issues to the waste basket." Another said, "Most of the articles in the *Bulletin* are of absolutely no interest to me. I think they represent the very dullest of academic psychology." The signature of this brave person was given. In the face of such criticism, one can take refuge in the consideration that every distribution must have a lower extreme.

Members show little agreement in regard to the features of the *Bulletin* to which they object. One believes it contains "too much clinical and social"; another believes it has deteriorated at the hands of "behavior theorists." Some readers (16) indicate that too many statistical articles have appeared, but some (6) indicate that articles on statistical methodology are a valuable feature. Some comments specific to the editorial policies of APA journals were received. For instance, it was suggested that the overlapping function of certain journals in regard to book reviewing be eliminated.

The volunteered comments uncovered one interesting, though minor, sidelight concerning some

members' lack of information concerning APA journals. One individual is considering the possibility of discontinuing the subscription, apparently not recognizing that all APA members automatically receive this journal. Another person "no longer subscribes to the *Bulletin*," yet indicated that some of the contents had been read. Whether the library is utilized while the personal copies lie unopened is uncertain. If our sample is representative, we must multiply these two members by ten to approximate the data for the APA. It is perhaps reassuring if only 20 psychologists in 8,554 demonstrate this degree of confusion.

Several comments expressed interest, and even concern, with regard to the manner in which the results of the survey would be reflected in editorial policy. We must confess that at the present time the exact bearing of the findings upon policy is obscure to us also, but we have a blind faith that this information will not harm us. In any event, the high degree of readership which the poll revealed will challenge us to try to maintain in the future the excellent reader interest which has characterized the recent past.

SUMMARY

A poll was conducted among a random sample of the APA to determine how many members read various materials appearing in the *Psychological Bulletin*. Approximately 50 per cent of the sample responded. It was found that the reader-audience of specific items ranged from 9 per cent to 58 per cent. The most popular items belonged to several *Bulletin* categories and lay in different areas of psychology.

This fact seems to indicate that psychologists in various fields may, nevertheless, share common interests. Of the eleven literature surveys appearing on the checklist, seven were read by one-third or more of the respondents. The two special reviews which appeared were both popular. Most book reviews were read by one-third or more of the APA, and some by as many as half. Although less popular items likewise belonged to different categories and different fields, they tended to be statistical in nature and to belong to sections concerned with short articles, notes, and film reviews.

If the findings derived from this survey can be generalized, it seems fair to conclude that psychologists not only write but also read.

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SOME DATA ON FACULTY AND GRADUATE STUDENTS IN DEPARTMENTS WITH APPROVED TRAINING PROGRAMS IN CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY

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SOME objective data on the size and the graduate student-faculty ratio of departments approved for training in clinical psychology may be interesting to persons in these and other departments for comparison with their own departments. Every year each department with an approved program is requested to send to the Com-

number of staff members of the departments is 18.9, with a range of 8 to 35. For the graduate training programs, however, it was thought that a more valid comparison would be in terms of the equivalent of full-time members giving time to graduate instruction and supervision. This was obtained by adding the percentages of time which were reported as devoted to graduate students. It is seen that the mean average of equivalent full-time faculty is 9.0 with a range of 3.5 to 30.6.

The total number of graduate students in these 40 institutions is 3,654, with a mean of 91.4 and a range of 33 to 268 in any one university. It must be noted that this includes both full-time and part-time students matriculating for an advanced degree. This doubtless makes some of the urban universities appear to have an excessively large number of students, but to leave out part-time students would probably introduce a greater error into the picture. Moreover, it is very difficult to determine who are part-time students, for some so-called full-time students are serving as graduate assistants and are not carrying as large a load of study as they might otherwise. Therefore, since part-time students in classes or in research must take the time of some faculty members, they are included in the total number.

Some indication of the faculty load is given by the ratio of the number of graduate students to the number of the equivalent full-time graduate faculty, which ratios have a mean of 10.6, and range from 4.1 to 37.2 for 37 universities. It is very doubtful that this wide range can be justified by the differences in numbers of part-time students at different institutions, or explained by errors in the estimates of fractions of time devoted to graduate students by the faculties.

TABLE 1

Faculty and graduate students in forty departments

Groups	Number Reporting	Total	Mean	Range
Faculty				
Total	39	732	18.9	8-35
Equivalent full-time for graduate staff	37	333.6	9.0	3.5-30.6
Students				
Clinical	40	1684	42.1	15-92
Nonclinical	40	1970	49.3	10-176
Total	40	3654	91.4	33-268
Student/Staff ratio	37	—	10.6	4.1-37.2
PhD candidates				
Clinical	40	645	16.1	2-32
Nonclinical	40	518	13.0	3-62
PhD's, 1951-52				
Clinical	40	237	5.9	0-12
Nonclinical	40	221	5.5	0-22
Total	40	458	11.5	1-30
Students admitted				
1951	40	995	24.9	8-62
1952	40	809	20.2	4-50

mittee on Doctoral Education a report from which these data are taken. It must be emphasized, however, that no evaluation is based simply on such quantitative data. The individual reports are, of course, kept confidential, but certain totals, means, and ranges are reported here.

Table 1 presents these data. The mean average

The average total number of clinical students, 42.1, is smaller than the average total number of nonclinical students, 49.3; but the average number of clinical students admitted to candidacy (thesis plans approved or prelims passed) is 16.1 and larger than the comparable number of nonclinical students, 13.0. This seems to indicate that either more clinical students go through to the doctorate or more of the students recently admitted and not yet admitted to candidacy are interested in nonclinical programs. The number of degrees of Doctor of Philosophy awarded in 1951-52 is approximately equal, a total of 237 or a mean of 5.9 for

clinical; and a total of 221, or a mean of 5.5 for nonclinical candidates.

The total numbers of graduate students admitted to these institutions in the past two years show a significant trend. The total number for 1951 was 995, but for 1952 it was only 809, a drop of 186 students or 18.7 per cent. Six of these 40 institutions admitted a few more students in 1952 than 1951; but the mean dropped from 24.9 to 20.2. Some departments commented that their standards for admission had been raised, and several stated that fewer high-grade applicants were available.

Manuscript received March 3, 1953

Comment

Contract Research in Economic Psychology

The four articles in the December 1952 issue of the *American Psychologist*¹ discuss such a great variety of government support of psychological research that some readers may think—no doubt contrary to the authors' intentions—they have obtained a complete picture of the stimulation of psychology by contracts with government agencies. The purpose of this comment is to call attention to one type of extensive research, not mentioned in the articles and carried out to a large extent through contracts with government agencies, namely, research on economic behavior or economic psychology. John T. Wilson deplores the "present exclusion of economics" from the interdisciplinary research sponsored by the ONR (p. 716) without mentioning that in other research projects economics has not been excluded.

No doubt there have been several research agencies participating in research on economic psychology, but the writer is intimately familiar only with the research conducted by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan. The work was begun during World War II by the former Division of Program Surveys in the U. S. Department of Agriculture and has been carried out since 1946 on an increased scale at Michigan. The largest contracts were made by the Federal Reserve Board. In addition, the Treasury Department, the Housing and Home Finance Agency, the Office of Price Stabilization, and some other agencies awarded contracts to the Survey Research Center. A substantial number of nationwide surveys, consisting of detailed interviews with representative samples of the population or of businessmen, were carried out for the purposes of collecting economic as well as psychological data (information on attitudes, motives, expectations, etc.) and clarifying the interrelationships between the two.

Several years of experience enable us to draw the following conclusions which are well in accord with those of the four authors, and especially Charles W. Bray:

1. There is no antithesis between basic and applied research. Even contracts which are given for specific applied purposes may provide vehicles for basic research. Basic research may be stimulated by practical needs and is often eminently practical. Nevertheless, contract research needs supplementation by work carried out with the help of "free funds" (obtained, for instance, from foundations) in order to contribute most to theoretical and methodological issues.

¹ LANIER, L. H., BRAY, C. W., WILSON, J. T., & DARLEY, J. G. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1952, 7, 707-722.

2. There is no antithesis between organized group research and independent endeavors of individual scholars. The former is necessary because of the scope and the cross-disciplinary nature of the tasks. Yet even ivory tower thinking may find its place in the group endeavor. Both are in need of, and profit most from, "program research" which is devised to tackle broad problem areas over several years. Thereby hypotheses can be tested, revised, and tested again.

3. Contract research and teaching can go hand in hand. The former provides the basis for on-the-job training of graduate students. The students through combining their studies with a research job may need longer to receive their PhD degrees, but at the same time they acquire broader experience (and also make a living).

GEORGE KATONA

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College Catalogues and Industrial Psychology

Poruben in the January, 1953, issue of the *American Psychologist*¹ purports to present "interesting and valuable" information concerning the training of industrial psychologists through an analysis of college catalogues. He assumed that "a college offering the doctorate in industrial psychology should give adequate training in five areas—industrial, statistics, psychometrics, research methodology, and guidance." He then studied college catalogues and tallied the number of semester hours given by the *psychology department* in each of these areas and then gave a rank order to the 30 colleges.² By this means, the University of Minnesota ranks 27.5 and the University of Michigan, for example, ranks 1. The unwary might think that Minnesota minimizes training in industrial psychology. The truth is, perhaps, nearer the exact opposite.

The Minnesota doctoral program in industrial psychology could not be described by a study of the *psychology department courses* as listed in the catalogue. It would be revealed, however, in a study of the transcripts of Minnesota graduates who, in increasing number, are now earning their living as industrial psychologists. The point is that the Minnesota department relies on three other departments for advanced training in mathematical statistics, on two other departments for training in psychometrics, and on four other departments for training in production management,

¹ PORUBEN, A., JR. Analysis of industrial psychology courses. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1953, 8, 50-52.

² Guidance as an area was dropped from consideration.

time and motion study, scientific management, personnel management, and industrial relations. A study of the department of psychology offerings per se would not reveal the interdepartmental and interdisciplinary character of the training available and utilized in producing industrial psychologists.

A better approach than a study of college catalogues would be to study the output of colleges as exemplified by the numbers of persons contributing to the literature or actually working as industrial psychologists. A

members of Division 14 of the APA (Industrial and Business Psychology) as published in the 1951 APA *Directory* reveals that Minnesota ranks 7.5 as shown in column 2 of Table 1. A tally of the universities which trained two or more members of Division 14 of the APA since 1944 shows that Minnesota ranks 5.5. (See column 3, Table 1.) Poruben's catalogue rank orders are also included for these same universities to show how performance rank orders and catalogue rank orders fail to agree.

Current statistics of the number of PhD's and MA's turned out by the Minnesota department who are earning a living in industrial psychology show that 26 PhD's and 46 MA's are so engaged.

"By their fruits ye shall know them" would seem to be a more realistic guide to what goes on than a mere tallying of courses in college catalogues. For this reason, Poruben's recommendation "that anyone interested in the graduate training facilities of a college for the doctorate in industrial psychology should especially consult columns 6 and 8 of the table" might well be rejected.

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TABLE 1

Universities ranked according to their production of leaders in industrial psychology and according to Poruben's catalogue study

Colleges and Universities	Rank Order			
	Contributors to Fryer & Henry's Handbook*	Members of APA Div. 14**	Members of APA Div. 14 Trained after 1944†	Poruben's Catalogue‡
Columbia	1	1	4	26
Ohio State	2	2	3	8
U. of Chicago	3	6	8	—
Harvard	5.5	11	—	—
Yale	5.5	7.5	—	—
U. of Iowa	5.5	4	—	13
U. of Minnesota	5.5	7.5	5.5	27.5
New York U.	8	5	2	15
Clark U.	10	—	—	—
Johns Hopkins	10	—	—	30
U. of Penn.	10	9	—	20
Stanford	13	11	—	20
U. of Illinois	13	—	—	27.5
Cornell	13	—	11	24
Purdue	—	3	1	4
Northwestern	—	11	—	15
Western Reserve	—	—	5.5	2.5
U.C.L.A.	—	—	8	2.5
U.S.C.	—	—	8	18
U. of Calif. (Berkeley)	—	—	11	9
U. of Mich.	—	—	11	1

* Universities which trained two or more contributors to D. Fryer and E. R. Henry's *Handbook of Applied Psychology*. Vols. 1 and 2. New York: Rinehart, 1950.

** Universities which trained nine or more members of APA Division 14, Industrial and Business Psychology. 1951 *Directory of the American Psychological Association*.

† Universities which trained after 1944 two or more members of APA Division 14. 1951 *Directory of the American Psychological Association*.

‡ Rank order (up to 30) as given by Poruben's study of semester hours of industrial psychology listed in catalogues.

tally of the 14 universities which trained two or more contributors to the *Handbook of Applied Psychology* reveals that Minnesota ranks 5.5 as shown in Table 1.² A tally of the universities which trained nine or more

² PATERSON, D. G. Leaders in applied psychology. *Personnel Psychol.*, 1950, 3, 398-400.

The Validity of a Criterion for Analysis of Industrial Psychology Courses

In the January, 1953 issue of the *American Psychologist*,¹ Poruben evaluated graduate training facilities for the PhD degree in industrial psychology at 30 institutions. He listed five areas of training necessary for a PhD in industrial psychology, and counted the number of semester hours available to graduate students in each area at each institution. The areas surveyed were statistics, psychometrics, research methods, industrial psychology, and 23 "basic courses." He recommended that anyone interested in seeking doctoral training in industrial psychology should consult his table of semester hours and ratings based on the table.

We suggest that there is little relation between the number of hours of course offerings and the quality of the training provided for graduate students. Some faculties teach as few as three hours per semester per member. Some may teach as many as fifteen hours per semester per member. Is the latter five times as good for graduate training as the former? One might possibly argue that the first faculty had five times as much time to devote to graduate training. It is also difficult to imagine how the research or library facili-

¹ PORUBEN, A., JR. Analysis of industrial psychology courses. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1953, 8, 50-52.

ties available at an institution could be accurately indicated by the number of semester hours available. It is unlikely that graduate student guidance, research participation, and association with the graduate staff could be accurately estimated from the number of hours of formal instruction offered.

We commend Poruben's choice of basic categories, and would add one more which we stress at Cornell, experimental psychology. We are thoroughly in favor of a complete and a vigorous training program in industrial psychology, but no formal graduate courses are required for a PhD at Cornell. The passing of any course is considered to be only superficial evidence of exposure to a subject, and this exposure is an extremely questionable measure of competence, knowledge, or ability to apply a theory. At Cornell graduate students are directed primarily by conferences with faculty, and during the year 1950-51 the ratio of faculty in psychology to graduate students was 1 to 2. This, we submit, is a more adequate index of the amount of guidance available to the students than the number of hours of formal courses.

Even so, we feel that we should set the record straight on courses available at Cornell since Poruben's totals for course hours offered at Cornell are inaccurate. The first row in Table 1 shows his figures, and the sec-

TABLE 1

Comparison of reported and actual semester hours available in four areas of instruction at Cornell

	Semester Hours				Total
	Industrial	Statistics	Psychometrics	Research Methods	
Poruben's totals	16	6	6	3	17 (sic)
Correct totals for Cornell	46	48	23	9	126

ond row shows the correct figures for Cornell. All of the courses which constitute the basis for the corrected totals are listed in the divisions of the university catalogue. While not all of the courses are offered by the psychology department of the College of Arts and Sciences, the remainder are available to any student who needs them, through other staff members of the Graduate School.

These arguments make us believe that Poruben's choice of method is of limited value for evaluating the 30 institutions, and does not present a valid basis for comparison of graduate programs, or the educational

facilities of those institutions. Even if we accept his criteria, the data are extremely inaccurate in the case of at least one of the institutions in his list.

T. A. RYAN,
O. W. SMITH,
P. C. SMITH
Cornell University

The Decrease in Journal Subscriptions

In the January *American Psychologist* there was a short note¹ on the decrease in the number of journal subscriptions. One of the reasons given for this was the increasing cost. However, I feel that the present situation results from a genuine decrease in the reading of professional literature in general. This may have come about because of an increase in the ratio of "applied research psychologists" to "academic psychologists." The reading of journals as a part of the research psychologist's job is generally limited to the specific field or area in which he is working; reading in the general field of psychology, as a rule, is not encouraged. Among academic psychologists, on the other hand, it is considered a basic and important part of their job to keep abreast of current literature in the psychological field in general. Obviously, a certain amount of "off the job time" can and should be devoted to this important task. However, only the professional person who has no interests other than psychology can keep up with all the important literature in the field entirely on his own time.

This will in the future, I believe, result in research psychologists who are exceptionally specialized, narrow, and, in the long run, sterile.

This should not be construed as a criticism specific to the organization with which I am presently associated or to those with which I have been associated in the past. It is, I believe, a problem which confronts the psychologist in most large research organizations.

I cannot offer a solution to the problem, but I believe it is essential that a solution be forthcoming in the near future.

ROBERT G. NEEL
Washington, D. C.

Discriminatory Capacity of the University of Pittsburgh Examination among Graduate Students in Psychology

Since 1947 the University of Pittsburgh Examination for Graduate Students has been required for candidates

¹ SANFORD, F. H. Across the Secretary's Desk. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1953, 8, 54-55.

for master's degrees in all divisions of the Graduate School. The examination is a battery consisting of the Miller Analogies Test, Mathematical Abilities Test, and Reading Comprehension Test. Each test is standardized and commercially published. National norms are available for each but local norms, based on 2000 cases, 1947-1949, have been developed with scores expressed as stanines. For security reasons the mathematics and reading tests are not identified by name.

An extensive validation study using test and subtest scores to predict first-year graduate quality point averages in several academic fields was made by Jenson.¹ He found each of the tests predictively related to success in graduate courses in psychology, with the mathematics test being the most effective for prediction and the Miller Analogies Test the least effective of the three.

Cureton, Cureton, and Bishop² reported correlation of the Miller with grade-point average ($r = .68$) and with other variables.

Several approaches to evaluation of the effectiveness of the battery are possible. The one reported here began with the hypothesis that if the tests are effective they will reliably discriminate between successful and unsuccessful graduate students, success being defined as attainment of the graduate degree sought, non-success as termination of graduate study without the degree.

Groups were selected from the total list of formally accepted and entered candidates for graduate degrees in psychology during the period February 1947 to August 1952. Some attrition occurred because of unavailability of scores for some individuals who were accepted prior to the requirement of the examination in 1947 and also for some who were admitted to doctoral candidacy after earning the master's degree elsewhere. This loss was not more than 10 per cent of the available population since many individuals in these categories completed the examination voluntarily or on advisement. Those currently active in the pursuit of the master of science degree were dropped from the population, leaving for comparison a degree-recipients group and a terminated group.

The degree group could be readily identified. In the cases of those who had earned both the master of science and doctor of philosophy degrees during the period, each was considered only in the PhD group. Identification of the terminated group was generally simple. It included those who had met admission re-

quirements and actually entered graduate study but who had not received a graduate degree and were no longer candidates at the University of Pittsburgh for a degree in psychology. Some of these individuals had discontinued on advice of the faculty, some had announced their departure as final, others had merely disappeared. For the latter, non-attendance for two previous semesters without evidence of intent to return was considered termination. A rather clear merit continuum was observable within the terminated group since it included some who left in excellent academic standing for economic, military, or other reasons. A few had transferred to other divisions of the University. It would have been interesting to work with another group, those who terminated after the master's degree. Such a group would, however, be very difficult to isolate since many variables seem to cause interim periods between degrees.

Means were found for each test and group and tested for significance of difference. Data were treated in raw score form. Biserial r 's were computed on the dichotomy, degree/terminated.

TABLE 1
Differences between test means of study groups

Test	Degree Group ($N = 93$)		Terminated Group ($N = 38$)		$D/\sigma D$
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Miller Analogies	73.19	8.03	60.16	13.30	5.63**
(PhD, $N = 32$)	75.44	10.34			5.40**
(MS, $N = 61$)	72.00	10.25			4.69**
Mathematical Abilities	95.60	18.13	75.16	22.21	4.96**
(PhD, $N = 32$)	96.69	20.67			4.20**
(MS, $N = 61$)	94.63	23.01			4.18**
Reading Comprehension	76.30	7.57	72.40	9.43	2.27*
(PhD, $N = 32$)	77.94	8.43			2.47*
(MS, $N = 61$)	75.44	7.90			1.66

* Significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

** Significant at the 1 per cent level of confidence.

As evidenced in Table 1, means of the degree group were found to be higher than those of the terminated group on each of the tests. A parenthetically inserted comparison of MS and PhD recipients shows some slight superiority of the PhD subgroup. Differences between either or both degree groups and the terminated group were statistically significant (1 per cent level) on the Miller Analogies Test and on the test of

¹ JENSON, RALPH E. Predicting scholastic achievement of first-year graduate students. Unpublished PhD dissertation, Univer. of Pittsburgh, 1949.

² CURETON, E. E., CURETON, L. W., & BISHOP, RUTH. Prediction of success in graduate study at the University of Tennessee. *Amer. Psychologist*, 1949, 4, 361.

mathematical ability. Reading test differences were significant at the 5 per cent level for comparison of degree-terminated and for PhD-terminated means. The magnitude of the obtained critical ratios implies greatest discriminatory capacity on the part of the Miller Analogies Test. No differences between MS and PhD means were significant. This was to be expected since the policy of the Department of Psychology has been to reserve admission to those likely to complete both degrees.

Biserial r 's computed for the degree/terminated dichotomy were: Miller Analogies Test, .61; Mathematical Abilities Test, .50; Reading Comprehension Test, .36.

GEORGE L. FAHEY
University of Pittsburgh

A New SSRC Committee on Linguistics and Psychology

Most psychologists have noticed a quickening interest in communication problems during the past few years. It has been evident in the content of papers and symposia presented at APA meetings, in the setting up of both graduate and undergraduate courses, and in articles appearing in our journals—a recent issue of the *Psychological Review*, for example, included four papers on as many aspects of language behavior. The same trend is apparent in other fields, in education, sociology, anthropology, psychiatry, and even neurophysiology. The contributions of mathematicians, engineers, and others to the development of "information theory" are well known and are responsible to no small degree for the contemporary rebirth of interest in communication research.

For the most part, these recent developments have taken place without contact with linguists. Not only is this surprising, since linguistics is the science most directly concerned with the structure of messages, but it has resulted in considerable naiveté in the design and interpretation of research on language behavior. The stereotype of the linguist held by many social scientists—that he is simply a polyglot or perhaps a philologist—is partly responsible for this situation. As a matter of fact, linguists have developed tools for the descriptive analysis of languages which for their rigor and exhaustiveness put us to shame when compared with our own techniques for describing behavior. Another reason for this situation is that to date communication channels between linguists and other social scientists have for the most part been unavailable. Evolving as specialists within language departments, linguists have generally found professional organization within the humanities and have participated in research and planning groups sponsored by foundations other than those supporting

the social sciences. One exception to this has been the close and fruitful collaboration among linguists and anthropologists; another was two conferences between linguists and information theorists held recently at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; and yet another was the Interdisciplinary Summer Research Seminar on Linguistics and Psychology sponsored at Cornell University by the Social Science Research Council in 1951.

One of the concrete proposals of the Cornell Seminar was that the SSRC set up a committee to survey, stimulate, and aid research in those social science areas bordering on linguistics. Further impetus to this proposal came from a group of linguists, anthropologists, and psychologists meeting together at a Fortnight's Conference of Anthropologists and Linguists held at the Linguistic Institute, Bloomington, Indiana, and cosponsored by Indiana University and the Wenner-Gren Foundation. In October, 1952, the Social Science Research Council established "a new Committee on Linguistics and Psychology . . . to plan and develop research in the field of language behavior." The members for 1952-53 are John B. Carroll of Harvard University (psychologist), Floyd G. Lounsbury of Yale University (anthropologist and linguist), George A. Miller of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (psychologist), Charles E. Osgood of the University of Illinois (psychologist, chairman), and Thomas A. Sebeok of Indiana University (linguist), with Joseph B. Casagrande (anthropologist) of the Council's Washington Office serving as staff representative.

While it is impossible to foresee the exact course this Committee will take, at least the following types of activities have been initiated or are felt to be appropriate: (1) The Committee will conduct a survey of on-going and contemplated research in language behavior, aimed at an inventory of trained personnel, existing and needed techniques, and potentially fruitful research areas deserving support. (2) It hopes to organize and support a number of small-scale work conferences of 2-4 days' duration on special problems among research workers with confluent and mutually interdependent interests, who would otherwise find little opportunity for such cross-area stimulation and sharing of skills. (3) The Committee may, as its program develops, wish to plan and give general supervision to one or more major pieces of research and give aid in the preparation of special studies. (4) It can serve as a communication channel between research workers in these areas and possible sources of support and, in this connection, can serve as a specialized evaluation board for research proposals falling within its competence. (5) It will attempt, both through work conferences and encouragement of interdisciplinary training of graduate students, to develop teachers and investigators who are reason-

ably competent in both linguistics and one or another of the social sciences. (6) Drawing both on its own membership and on invited participants, this Committee will examine various theoretical models of the language process, including linguistic, learning theory, and information theory models, with the purpose of determining their points of commonness and uniqueness and of appraising their utilities in handling various language problems.

As stated above, one of the first goals of this Committee is to compile an inventory of on-going and contemplated research in the general area of language behavior. Such an inventory is prerequisite to intelligent planning of work conferences and support of research activities. *The Committee on Linguistics and Psychology therefore takes this opportunity to invite both those who are themselves engaged in or planning research on language behavior and those who know of such activities at their own institutions to communicate this information to the Committee.* We would like to know the general nature of the research, the principal investigators, and the institution where the work is being carried on. Further details will be solicited by the Committee as the need arises. This information may be sent to either the chairman (C. E. Osgood, Department of Psychology, University of Illinois, Urbana) or the staff representative of the committee (J. B. Casagrande, Social Science Research Council, 726 Jackson Place N.W., Washington 6, D. C.). Any suggestions as to how this committee can more effectively achieve its goals will also be warmly received.

CHARLES E. OSGOOD
For the Committee on
Linguistics and Psychology

Psi Chi

Psi Chi was founded on September 4, 1929, at the Ninth International Congress of Psychology by a group of students and faculty members who had felt the need for a national honorary society in the field of psychology. While the Society has no formal status with respect to the American Psychological Association, its regional and national meetings, as were the preliminary organizational meetings, are held in conjunction with meetings of the APA, and its national officers and faculty advisers are generally required to be members of that association.

The purpose of the organization, as stated by the constitution, is "primarily to advance the science of

psychology; and secondly to encourage, stimulate, and maintain scholarship of the individual members in all fields, particularly in psychology." In pursuing this goal, the society requires that its members meet certain scholarship qualifications, and that they maintain high standards of personal behavior.

In the twenty-three years of its existence, the organization has chartered ninety-seven universities and colleges throughout the United States, and has initiated more than twenty thousand faculty members and graduate and undergraduate students. In considering an institution for a charter, emphasis has been placed on such factors as the interest of faculty members and students in their profession as indicated by membership in the APA, quality of research produced, and on-going student activities rather than the size of the department or institution.

Local chapters are largely autonomous in determining organization procedures and activities, being subject only to the general requirements of the national constitution and bylaws. While membership in the organization has been meaningful through individual participation by the student, chapter groups have contributed services through group action for their departments, their schools, and their communities. These services have ranged from support of departmental awards to outstanding students to active participation in the organization of State professional societies.

The organization also participates in many activities at the regional and national levels. Business meetings and programs of research papers are held at meetings in conjunction with regional and national meetings of the APA. The resources of the national organization have been used in participating in such projects as assisting the APA Committee on Ethical Standards for Psychology. For several years, the Britt Foundation has made, through Psi Chi, an award to assist outstanding student research.

The national organization aids chapters in obtaining speakers by compiling information concerning travel of distinguished psychologists and other specialists in allied fields. Newsletters with information concerning the national organization and the activities of local chapters are published three times a year and distributed to all active members, and handbooks and other materials are supplied to local chapters by the national office to assist them in developing and maintaining active programs.

LUCILLE K. FORER
Secretary-Treasurer, Psi Chi

Across the Secretary's Desk

The April Meeting of the Board of Directors

The APA Board of Directors convened in Washington at 9:30 A.M. on Thursday, April 9 and, except for relatively brief intermissions for social and recuperative purposes, met for four full days. A great deal of association business, both routine and otherwise, was handled. The present paragraphs report some highlights. The official and detailed report of the meeting will be issued later by the Recording Secretary.

Actions between September 1952 and April 1953

- a. Approval of an APA contribution of \$100 to the National Society for Medical Research.
- b. Election of 1,204 new Associate members of APA.
- c. Election of Herbert S. Langfeld and Donald G. Marquis as APA representatives to the Assembly of the International Union of Scientific Psychology.
- d. Approval of the acceptance of a gift of \$1,000 from the Midwestern Psychological Association for the purchase of a conference table for the Board Room in the new APA headquarters.
- e. Approval of the recommendation from the Publications Board that APA not accept responsibility for the publication of *Psychological Book Previews*.
- f. Approval of APA participation in the proposed Scientific Manpower Commission.
- g. Election of Dael Wolfe and Leonard Carmichael as APA representatives to the Scientific Manpower Commission.
- h. Approval of a budget of \$800 for the Committee on a Directory of Psychological Service Centers.
- i. Approval of the Education and Training Board recommendation that APA request \$14,000 from USPHS to support the E & T program for fiscal 1953-54.
- j. Approval of Division 7's request to accept a grant of \$1,000 from the Field Foundation to finance the work of a Division 7 Policy and Planning Board.
- k. Approval of the Division 16 proposal to hold a work conference on the qualifications and training of school psychologists, and approval of the

solicitation of outside funds to support the conference.

l. Election of Edwin G. Boring, John F. Dashiell, David Shakow, E. C. Tolman, and R. S. Woodworth as additional members of the Committee on the Building Fund.

m. Passing of following motion re restrictive legislation:

Moved that Board of Directors of APA is opposed to legislation restricting to any one profession the application of psychological techniques and knowledge. Public welfare demands that such services be the joint responsibility of many professions, including psychology, medicine, education, the ministry, and social work, and should not be limited to any one of them.

In addition to the above actions (a) the Council of Representatives voted in February to move the 1953 meeting from East Lansing, Michigan to Cleveland, Ohio, (b) the president made a number of interim appointments, and (c) the Executive Secretary took a variety of concrete steps to implement instructions given him by the Council of Representatives in September.

Finances

The Treasurer's report showed that we finished our 1952 operation with a surplus of \$14,719.32. Last June an examination of our rate of income and expenditure strongly suggested a 1952 deficit of approximately \$15,000. When this probable deficit became known, many members of APA's government got themselves involved in an economy drive, a drive which resulted in an increase in income and a decrease in expenditure for the year. Though a change from a \$15,000 deficit to a \$15,000 surplus represents a change of only 10 per cent in our annual budget, the change still is one of both financial and psychological significance.

Though it is too early to draw a picture of 1953 finances, it is an excellent bet that the Association will survive—and a good bet that it will thrive. Whether we will survive without a mortgage on the building will depend on the outcome of the forthcoming campaign to solicit gifts to the building fund.

The Convention Program

The Board studied with care the report of the *Ad Hoc* Committee on the Convention Program but

decided against any action to bring about, at this time, any major change in our way of handling our annual meetings. With more and more members wanting more and more space on the program, with everybody connected with the planning of the program wanting to give everybody everything they want, with the finite amount of space hotels are able to provide, and with a limit on the amount of time APA members are willing and able to spend at annual meetings, there clearly is a problem calling for highly inventive solution. The *Ad Hoc* Committee on the Convention Program met last fall and worked out a number of stimulating suggestions. The Board voted that the Central Office, in collaboration with the Committee, work up a document on the problem and its alternate solutions and send this document during the summer to divisional officers and to divisional program chairmen. The idea is that in September there can be intelligent discussion by divisions and by the Council of Representatives and that the *Ad Hoc* Committee can then work further toward the implementation of its own ideas, as they may be modified, and such other ideas as may grow out of September discussions.

Membership

At the request of the Membership Committee the Board confronted the problem of what constituted, for membership purposes, qualifying psychological employment. The Membership Committee has had great difficulty in deciding on the eligibility for membership of applicants who, for example, move from two years of graduate training directly into unsupervised practice in applied psychology. After lengthy discussion of this intricate business the Board endorsed the principle that, for purposes of establishing eligibility of membership, employment for which the individual is not adequately prepared does not constitute qualifying employment. The Board further instructed the Membership Committee to defer action pending future clarification, on applicants who are engaged in unsupervised practice but who have only minimal professional training. It was the Board's feeling that the Association must move rapidly toward the setting up of standards for unsupervised practice of psychology. In line with this movement, the editor of the *American Psychologist* was asked to confer with the Division 12 Committee that has been concerning itself with this matter and to bring about the publication

of that Committee's recent report on standards of training for those engaging in unsupervised practice.

Education and Training

Since the E and T Board is holding its spring meeting after the meeting of the Board, there was not extensive discussion of E and T business. The Board did consider, however, the future relations between the APA Committee on Doctoral Education and both the National Commission on Accrediting and the various regional accrediting associations. The National Commission is currently studying ways to coordinate and "sanitize" the accrediting activities of many professional organizations. The Board expressed a favorable reaction to the aim of the National Commission and encouraged the E and T Board to cooperate in every feasible way with the Commission and with regional associations of colleges and universities.

Professional Liability Insurance

As psychologists have taken on new activities and duties, they have felt an increased need for some form of professional liability insurance. A few local groups, on the basis of special arrangements, have obtained such insurance; but for most psychologists this type of protection has been available, if at all, only in the form of rather inappropriate policies and at unduly high rates. For more than a year the Board of Directors has had a committee at work on this problem. The Committee now reports considerable progress. An attorney who is a specialist in insurance law is in the process of drafting a policy which is tailor-made for psychologists and which will provide cheaper and better protection than is now available. The success of this new plan will importantly depend, however, upon some provision for "screening" psychologists deemed preferred risks. Diplomate status in ABEPP will probably provide a satisfactory criterion in certain fields, and other provisions are being considered for the selection of psychologists not covered by ABEPP. The *Newsletter* of Division 12 will shortly publish an interim report on this matter; and the Board hoped that further progress can be announced at the next meeting of the Association.

Public Information

At the September meeting the Board and Council directed the Central Office to step up its activity in the field of public information. The Central Office

staff reported at the April meeting (a) that it had procured, on a consultantship basis, the services of Michael Amrine, a professional science writer and experienced newsman, (b) that a public information handbook for psychologists had been prepared and would soon be ready, if the Board approved it, for distribution to our members, and (c) that other active steps had been taken to insure more adequate and accurate news coverage of some of the activities of psychologists.

The Board discussed for more than an hour the intricate and sometimes conflictful topic of public information. The discussion ranged from astral consideration of the "morality of public relations" to concrete and inventive ideas about ways in which psychologists can educate the general public. The Board seems clearly inclined to move toward more active programs of public information but is convinced that our efforts in this area must be guided by a veridical concern for public welfare. We cannot build up false images of psychology nor can we "toot our horns" louder than our accomplishments warrant. The Board asked the Central Office, in collaboration with the Committee on Public Relations, to draw up for the consideration of the Council of Representatives and of our membership at large, a statement concerning the social goals, the utility, and concrete procedures of a public information program that might be adopted by psychologists.

Nominations

The Board spent the best part of a day formulating slates from which the Council will elect the members of next year's Boards and Committees. These slates will be presented by mail to Council members so that newly constituted Boards and Committees can meet in September.

As in past years the Board struggled valiantly with the problem of involving in the Association's affairs more of our members who are able and willing to work but who are not widely known to Council members. This year each Committee slate will carry the name of a person judged by the Board to fall in the "willing-able-unknown" category. Each such name will be starred on the ballot so that Council can vote for new blood if they so wish.

Co-President of the International Congress

APA has been asked to elect a president of the 1953 International Congress of Psychology to be held in Montreal, June 7-12, 1954. The Canadian

Psychological Association will also elect a president. These Co-Presidents, along with Henri Piéron, the President of the International Union of Scientific Psychology, will be the highest officers of the Congress.

The Board voted that each APA member be asked to make a nomination for Co-President and that the Council of Representatives be asked to elect from among the most frequently nominated persons.

Publications

The Board examined the 1952 data on the circulations and finances of our journals and discussed at considerable length the problems presented by the steady increase in the number of publishable papers in psychology. The intricate problem of policies and charges for prior publication was also confronted but no action was taken. The Publications Board will meet at the end of May and will report to the Board of Directors in September.

The Board expressed considerable interest in the study, now being conducted in the Central Office, of the feasibility of our buying and operating our own printing press.

The Central Office

On the basis of its own assessment and the report of the president's *Ad Hoc* Committee on the Central Office, the Board voted that one professional person be added to the Central Office staff. It was the idea of both the Board and the Committee that the additional person could assume detailed responsibility for the increasingly large and increasingly intricate financial affairs of the Association. There is good reason to believe that, with our annual budget of a third of a million dollars and our relatively vast printing and publishing operation, a psychologist who could, for a few years, devote himself exclusively to our financial affairs could easily save the Association more than the amount of his salary and could generally increase the effectiveness and economy of our service to our members. Also the presence of an additional member of the staff would free the Executive Secretary from much detailed concern with financial affairs, allowing him to worry more and maybe more productively about what the Board terms policy matters.

The Board also reacted favorably to the Committee's recommendation that the President annually appoint a Committee to take a thorough look at Central Office operations.

The Building

The Board received with apparent equanimity the news that the final cost of the building and its furnishings will come to approximately \$255,000. Equanimity also characterized the reaction to the news that the building and its furnishings had been carefully and objectively assessed to be worth \$329,000. The Board also (a) left to the Executive Secretary detailed decisions about arrangements with prospective tenants for our fourth and fifth floors, (b) voted to appoint a committee to concern itself with the journal library, (c) voted to appoint a committee of local psychologists to work with the Central Office on matters concerning the care and use of the building, (d) instructed the Executive Secretary to negotiate with the James McKeen Cattell Fund concerning the appropriate use of a proffered gift to the Building Fund, and (e) tabled again the question of establishing a psychological museum in the new building.

In reacting to the House Committee's recommendation that the Committee be discharged, the Board fished around for appropriate words to express its approval of the Committee's work. One member expressed a need for something stronger than warm appreciation. This led to the suggestion that the Committee be discharged "with hot appreciation." The communication to the Committee will express some such sentiment.

Divisions

Two divisions have recently requested permission to procure outside funds to support division projects, two divisions have requested permission to retain funds for specific purposes, and several divisions have expressed approval of a Division 15 proposal that the APA Bylaws be revised to allow divisions to retain and accumulate funds which in the past, if unused by divisions, have reverted to APA at the end of the fiscal year. The Board discussed at some length the general question of divisional autonomy and ended up with a motion expressing its approval of some arrangement whereby divisions can have greater financial independence. The question of the most desirable and workable arrangement, however, was left unsettled pending further discussions by and with divisions. With respect to the solicitation of outside funds, it was the Board's feeling that divisions should always work through APA, but the divisions themselves will be asked for guidance in this matter also.

Relations with Psychiatry

For the better part of a morning the Board talked about the relations between psychology and psychiatry and about recent developments affecting these relations (Across the Secretary's Desk, *American Psychologist*, April 1953). Board members sought to define and understand the current situation, to assess possible ways the situation might change, and to trace out proper APA action for each possible future development. Throughout the discussion there was some optimism that psychologists and psychiatrists could find ways, if they both continue to seek them, whereby the two professions can live amicably with one another, can both serve the public without conflict and without insult to anyone's personal or professional integrity.

Loyalty Oaths and Anti-intellectualism

University of California. In 1950 the APA Council of Representatives passed a resolution placing a "ban" on the University of California because of the special faculty oath imposed by the Board of Regents. APA members were enjoined not to take employment at any of the branches of the University and the University was denied the use of the APA employment service. At the April meeting the Board voted to lift this "ban." A ruling by the Supreme Court of California and the Regents' compliance with the ruling settles the major matter of principle and removes the necessity for the ban. The Board voted, however, to include in a letter to the President of the University of California, a statement of continued concern about the University's apparent hesitancy to settle with equity and speed the question of back pay for those faculty members who were dismissed for refusal to sign the oath.

The Case of Bernard F. Riess. The Board passed and implemented the following recommendation from the Committee on Academic Freedom and Conditions of Employment:

The issue in the case of Dr. Bernard F. Riess is a legal one, based on refusal to testify as to official conduct, according to the provisions of Section 903 of the New York City Charter. Surrounding the case, however, is a complex of social implications which it is to the interest of APA to examine and clarify, with the intent of formulating guiding principles. The Committee on Academic Freedom and Conditions of Employment recommends, therefore, that an *ad hoc* committee be appointed to prepare an analysis of the case, based, among other things, on consultations with Dr. Riess, his former employers, and other persons whose knowledge may be useful in such an analysis.

APA and anti-intellectualism. There is very good reason to believe that in the country at large there exists a clear trend toward anti-intellectualism, a trend giving rise to special oaths, special investigations, special restrictions on scientists and scholars. The Board talked at length about the proper role of an association like ours in confronting such a trend. There was also a good deal of inventive discussion about ways in which scientists and scholars might remove themselves from the defensive in the current situation and take positive action to advance the public acceptance of free enterprise of the mind. It seemed to be the Board's feeling that APA should not now make public protest or public affirmation but that psychologists nevertheless must, as an organization and as individuals, work with like-minded people to find effective ways to protect the individual scientist's right to freedom of inquiry and freedom of speech. It is clearly appropriate now, the Board felt, for APA to do what it feasibly can to keep its members informed of political developments having a bearing on intellectual freedom so that individual psychologists can take what action they deem desirable. The Executive Secretary was informally instructed to explore ways of giving our members such information.

Miscellaneous

The Board also:

1. Appointed Bruce V. Moore to replace the Executive Secretary as Secretary of the Committee on Scientific and Professional Ethics and Conduct.
2. Referred to the Council of Representatives a proposed Bylaw amendment whereby the Chairman of the Conference of State Psychological Associations would automatically become a member of the APA Board of Directors.
3. Referred to the Policy and Planning Board the question of the present and future meaning of Life Membership.
4. Referred to the Committee on International Relations in Psychology the question of ways in which APA might collaborate with the British Psychological Association and the Japanese Psychological Association in advancing psychology in Britain and Japan.
5. Granted \$1,000 to help support the Scientific Manpower Commission.
6. Accepted a bequest of \$600 from Walter V. Bingham to sponsor a lecture concerned with the

"discovery of the talented" and established a committee to select a recipient of the lectureship and an institution to be honored by the sponsorship of the lecture.

7. Granted supplements to the budgets of the Committee on Relations with the Social Work Profession and the Advisory Committee on Legislative Matters.

8. Expressed deep concern over the current financial problems of ABEPP, recognized the significant ABEPP contribution to American psychology, and stated a willingness to work with ABEPP in every possible way to help solve its financial problems.

9. Expressed an interest in exploring an arrangement whereby health and accident insurance can be procured on a group basis for APA members and asked the President to appoint a committee to study the matter in detail.

10. Passed a vote commending B. V. Moore for his work with the Education and Training Board and for his success in facilitating relations between APA and the National Commission on Accrediting.

11. Passed a vote of thanks to the girls in the Central Office who handled so efficiently the details connected with the Board meeting.

12. Expressed the feeling that it is both very pleasant and very convenient to hold a meeting in our own building.

A Reception for the Board

Sixty psychologists from the Washington area and 65 distinguished people who were their invited guests came to the APA building late Friday afternoon, April 10, to meet the members of the Board of Directors and to see the new headquarters. The occasion appeared both pleasant and educational to all. Many psychologists were educatively impressed with both the personal and official caliber of the people other psychologists work with and for. Many of the guests learned for the first time that psychologists have an organization, own their own building, publish ten journals, and have a highly presentable, distinguished, and scholarly Board of Directors. One eminent visitor was heard to say, "I am very pleased to learn that the Association has moved to Washington." The guest was one whose daily decisions affect in fairly direct ways the research opportunities of many psychologists in many settings.

FILLMORE H. SANFORD

Psychological Notes and News

Janet Smith Blakeslee, associate professor of psychology and director of the nursery school in the Division of Special Services for War Veterans at the University of Illinois, died on December 2, 1952.

Captain Stanley D. Curyea, U.S.M.C., was killed in action on February 1, 1953.

Donald E. Baier is leaving the Personnel Research Branch of The Adjutant General's Office, Department of the Army, to join the Commonwealth Life Insurance Company, Louisville, Kentucky, effective June 1, 1953. With officer status in that Company, he will plan and direct a research program which it desires to initiate.

Kenneth W. Spence was awarded the Howard Crosby Warren Medal by the Society of Experimental Psychologists at the annual meeting of the Society, held on March 30-31, 1953, at the University of Texas. The medal was awarded to Dr. Spence "for his persistent and rigorous theoretical and experimental work on fundamental problems of learning."

Harold A. Finkelstein has recently been appointed psychologist for the Cook County Department of Welfare Counseling and Placement Service in the State of Illinois.

Philip I. Sperling has transferred from the Human Factors Division, Directorate of Research and Development, Headquarters, U. S. Air Force, Washington, D. C., to the Air University European Research Group, Detachment II, Human Resources Research Institute, APO 58, c/o Postmaster, New York, N. Y. He will be at 25 avenue Kléber, Paris, France, and will organize a program of technical assistance to the various MDAP countries on personnel matters.

Abraham M. Zeichner has been promoted to senior clinical psychologist at the Connecticut State Hospital.

The department of psychology at the University of Miami has announced the appointments of Jack Kapchan and Raymond Hartley to its staff.

Herbert Rusalem has accepted the post of assistant professor of education in the Graduate School of Long Island University. He will be responsible for the counselor-training program and the services of teacher placement. Dr. Rusalem was also recently promoted to the post of assistant executive director, Federation of the Handicapped, where he has responsibility for the administration of the service program of the agency. He is also a member of the staff of the department of special education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Emanuel K. Beller, formerly assistant professor of psychology at Indiana University, has joined the staff of the Council Child Development Center, affiliated with the Jewish Board of Guardians in New York, as director of research. During 1951-52, he was granted a leave of absence by Indiana University to conduct a research study with Columbia University in Europe.

Ann Fitz-Hugh is now clinical psychologist at the Upper Peninsula Child Guidance Center, Marquette, Michigan.

William T. Wright has changed positions from clinical psychologist at the Larned State Hospital, Larned, Kansas to clinical psychologist with the Hertzler Clinic, Halstead, Kansas.

Daniel M. Goodacre, III, has resigned his position as research associate at Personnel Research Institute, Western Reserve University to join the training department of the B. F. Goodrich Company in Akron, Ohio as conference leader.

Two members of the staff of the department of psychology at Brooklyn College, Murray Glanzer and Daniel Berlyne, will attend the Institute for Mathematics for Social Scientists to be held during the coming summer at Hanover, New Hampshire.

James G. Cooper has been appointed to the summer staff of Eastern Oregon College of Education in La Grande.

VA Department of Medicine and Surgery Clinical Psychology Announcements

Robert Baker a graduate of the VA Training Program at Clark University has been appointed

to the staff at the VA Hospital, Northampton, Massachusetts.

Jorge Dieppa a graduate of the VA Training Program at Purdue University has been appointed to the staff at the VA Center, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Glenn Wright a graduate of the VA Training Program at Purdue University has been appointed to the staff at the VA Hospital, Roseburg, Oregon.

Joseph Newman has transferred from the VA Hospital, Canandaigua, New York to the VA Hospital, Memphis (Crump Blvd.), Tennessee.

Rayman Bortner was erroneously listed in the March *American Psychologist* as being a graduate of Northwestern University rather than Western Reserve University.

Officers of the Louisiana Psychological Association for 1953-54 are: Irving Arthur Fosberg, president; Thomas Williams Richards, vice-president; and Ruth Hamill Preston, secretary-treasurer.

The Tennessee Psychological Association, at its annual conference held at Nashville on February 20-21, 1953, elected the following new officers for the coming year: Edward E. Cureton, president; Theodore Landsman, president-elect for 1954; Lawrence H. Stewart, secretary-treasurer for 1953-54; and E. Llewellyn Queener, representative to Conference of State Psychological Associations.

Call for Papers, Section I, AAAS. Section I (Psychology) of AAAS will meet December 28 through 30 in Boston. Abstracts of papers may be submitted to the section secretary, William D. Neff, Department of Psychology, Faculty Exchange, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois. They should not exceed 300 words in length. The title of the paper, the author's name, and his institutional connection should be given in the form in which he wishes to have them appear on the program. Abstracts must be in the hands of the secretary not later than September 30, 1953.

The Human Resources Research Institute, Maxwell Air Force Base, formally opened its interrogation and small-group observation laboratory on April 2 with a planning conference attended by Institute personnel and a panel of civilian consultants. Plans for the use of the laboratory were discussed by F. W. Williams, Chief, Psychological

Warfare Division; H. J. Sander, Chief, Intelligence Division; S. M. Goodman, Chief, Officer Education Division; J. V. Golder, Acting Chief, Officer Personnel Division; D. G. Dittmer, Human Relations Division; J. K. Folger, Chief, Technical Services Division. Civilian consultants attending the conference were Lee S. Christie, Massachusetts Institute of Technology; J. C. Gilchrist, University of Wisconsin; Dorwin Cartwright, University of Michigan; Robert F. Bales, Harvard University; Ned A. Flanders, University of Minnesota; Herbert Thelen, University of Chicago. The consultants discussed the HRRI proposals for the use of the laboratory in the light of their own experiences and also proposed administrative procedures for effectively managing the laboratory, which will be part of the Technical Services Division of the Institute. Representing the central administration of HRRI at the conference were Major General F. O. Carroll, Commandant; Colonel G. W. Croker, Deputy Commandant; and Dr. C. L. Shartle, Director of Research.

During the month of March the Lecture Series of the American University of Beirut had lectures by two American psychologists: George F. J. Lehner, Fulbright Scholar at Vienna, who spoke on "Psychotherapy," and Carl Murchison who spoke on "The Effects of Frustration on Individuals and on Societies."

The APA Education and Training Board has recommended that the *Ethical Standards of Psychologists* be brought to the attention of graduate students in psychology. The method of doing this is left to each department, but the Board would like to know of experiences, successful or not, in helping students to work according to the code.

Workshop for School Psychologists. The department of psychology and the Bureau of Special and Adult Education of The Ohio State University in cooperation with The Ohio State Department of Education are offering a workshop for school psychologists. The workshop will be three weeks in length beginning June 29 and ending July 17, 1953. To be admitted to the workshop, one must have had at least one year's experience as a school psychologist. Enrollment is limited to 20. Address inquiries to Dr. Harold R. Phelps, Bureau of Special and Adult Education, 321 Arps Hall, The Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio.

The 1953 annual workshop in projective drawings with emphasis upon the H-T-P as a technique for personality evaluation and diagnosis will be conducted July 21 to 24 at the New York Psychiatric Institute by Emanuel F. Hammer and Selma Landisberg. To apply for admission write to Dr. Emanuel F. Hammer, 220 West 98th Street, New York 25, N. Y.

The Postgraduate Center for Psychotherapy of New York announces postdoctoral training opportunities in psychotherapy. The program is designed to train psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, and psychiatric caseworkers to function within the framework of a medical setting. Clinical facilities are provided by the Clinic of the center which is licensed by the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene. The orientation of the methods taught is grounded in psychoanalytic theory. The psychotherapeutic techniques are derived from the fields of psychoanalysis, psychobiology, psychiatric interviewing, casework, and psychological counseling. Prerequisites for clinical psychologists are a PhD degree and two years' clinical experience under adequate supervision. Clinical psychologists are accepted only on a full-time basis with stipends of \$3,600 the first year and \$4,000 for the second and third years. Scholarships are given to accepted psychologists to pay for all didactic courses, clinical seminars, and supervision. For information and applications write to Dr. Theodora M. Abel, Director of Psychology, Postgraduate Center for Psychotherapy, 218 East 70th Street, New York 21, N. Y.

A lecture on Figure Drawing Analysis will be given by Karen Machover, senior psychologist, Kings County Hospital, Brooklyn, New York, at the Springfield State Hospital on May 18. There is no fee. Address inquiries to Dr. Michael H. P. Finn, Chief Psychologist, Springfield State Hospital, Sykesville, Maryland.

A few remaining copies of the book *New Methods in Applied Psychology* are available at the reduced price of \$1.00 per copy. This book is the 1947 proceedings of the Maryland Conference on Military Psychology, edited by George A. Kelly, and is available through the Student Supply Store, University of Maryland, College Park.

Indiana University, School of Education stipends for graduate and research assistantships

in educational psychology: stipend range is from \$900 to \$1,800 depending on qualifications; student must pay own tuition (\$4.00 per credit). Some undergraduate training in mathematics or the physical sciences in addition to psychology is desirable. Apply by July 1 to Director, Institute of Educational Research, Rogers K, Bloomington, Indiana.

Appointment as Reserve Commissioned Officer of the Army. The Personnel Research Branch of The Adjutant General's Office has a reserve unit designed to augment its professional staff in the event of mobilization. There are a number of vacancies for company grade officers in this unit and it is desired to fill them through direct appointment in the Army Reserve of suitably qualified research psychologists. Officers appointed under this program could be called to active duty under present laws without their consent; however, no members of this unit have been called to active duty to date. Normally reserve officers appointed under this program would be called to active duty only in the event of mobilization. Applicants for appointment must have received at least a master's degree and preferably a PhD with emphasis on quantitative methods and personnel psychology. Applicants must have at least the minimum number of years of qualifying experience indicated below, and must not have attained the birthday shown below prior to appointment in the grade indicated:

Grade	Age	Years Experience
2d Lt.	28	1
1st Lt.	33	3
Captain	39	7

Each year of relevant graduate education may be counted as a year of qualifying experience. Applicants who are appointed will be required to complete the appropriate extension course series within two years of date of appointment or successfully attend an appropriate associate basic course. A variety of administrative requirements and procedures are required to be followed in the formal submission and processing of official application. It should be understood that the usual requirements such as passing physical examination, loyalty check, interview by a Board of Army Officers, etc., will be included in the administrative procedures. However, before an official application may be processed it is necessary for the applicant to be in possession of a written statement that an appropriate position vacancy in the mobilization aug-

mentation unit of the Personnel Research Branch, TAGO, exists and will be held open for the applicant pending the processing of the official application. On this account, those interested should forward a transcript of undergraduate and graduate work, together with a summary personal history and experience statement to the Chief, Personnel Research Branch, The Adjutant General's Office, Oklahoma Avenue and E Street, N.E., Washington, D. C., within 60 days of the publication of this announcement.

The statement of personal history should include a plain sheet of paper containing the following information pertaining to each position of employment:

- a. Name and address of employer
- b. Dates of employment (month and year)
- c. Kind of business
- d. Salary or earnings (starting—final or present)
- e. Description of work performed
- f. Number and kind of employees supervised
- g. Name of immediate supervisor
- h. Reason for leaving

Those considered to be best qualified professionally for appointment will be furnished the required statement together with detailed instructions for submitting official application.

National Science Foundation Research Grants and Fellowships. The following research grants have recently been awarded:

David Ehrenfreund, Washington State College: \$11,300 for a two-year study of "The Role of Drive-Reward Interaction in Learning."

F. A. Logan, Yale University: \$5,000 for a one-year study of "Stimulus Conditions in Learning."

C. D. Michener, University of Kansas: \$13,500 for a two-year study of "The Origin and Evolution of Caste Behavior among Certain Bees."

Carl Pfaffmann, Brown University: \$16,300 for a three-year study on the "Psychophysiology of the Chemical Senses."

H. E. Rosvold, Yale University: \$25,600 for a two-year study of "Brain Functions in the Behavior of Infra-Human Primates."

C. P. Stone, Stanford University: \$7,400 for a two-year study of the "Behavior of Hypophysectomized Rats."

E. L. Walker, University of Michigan: \$14,000 for a two-year study on a "Comparison of Conditioning Techniques in Learning."

Graduate fellowships for the academic year 1953-54 have been awarded to seven students in the field of psychology. They are George E. Briggs, Jr., Richard L. Deininger, John R. Hughes, Lloyd N. Morrisett, Jr., Evalyn F. Segal, Joseph C. Stevens, and Philip Teitelbaum. These seven awards constituted 1.26 per cent of the total number of National Science Foundation fellowships awarded this year.

Two surveys made by the National Science Foundation are of interest to psychologists. A survey of graduate students in science showed that in 1951 the field of psychology had the second largest number of graduate students. The top ten fields in terms of number of graduate students were chemistry (6,872), psychology (5,221), physics (4,971), zoology (3,084), mathematics (3,071), biology (1,933), geology (1,864), bacteriology (1,343), physiology (1,155), and botany (1,014).

Alan T. Waterman, director of the Foundation, recently reported that in 1952 federal funds for applied research and development in nonprofit institutions totaled \$246,532,000 while basic research support totaled only \$71,078,000. Of the funds allocated for basic research 87 per cent was administered by the Department of Defense and the Atomic Energy Commission, and only 1.5 per cent by the National Science Foundation.

The Bureau of Internal Revenue has recently ruled that fees paid to qualified psychologists are tax deductible under section 23(x) of the Internal Revenue Code. At the request of the Joint Council of New York State Psychologists, Robert S. Holzman wrote to the Treasury Department for an opinion on the deductibility of these expenses. Section 23(x) of the Internal Revenue Code permits a deduction of expenses for medical care. In a letter from the Office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue (Reference T:R:II; RFW:3) the opinion was expressed that the term "medical care" is sufficiently broad to include fees paid to a qualified psychologist.

Convention Calendar

American Psychological Association: September 4-9, 1953; Cleveland, Ohio

For information write to:

Dr. Fillmore H. Sanford
1333 Sixteenth Street N. W.
Washington 6, D. C.

Canadian Psychological Association: May 28-30, 1953; Kingston, Ontario, Canada

For information write to:

Dr. G. A. Ferguson, Secretary-Treasurer
3544 Peel Street
Montreal, P. Q., Canada

American Psychopathological Association: June 5-6, 1953; New York City

For information write to:

Dr. Donald M. Hamilton
121 Westchester Avenue
White Plains, New York

American Neurological Association: June 15-17, 1953; Atlantic City, New Jersey

For information write to:

Dr. H. Houston Merritt
710 West 168th Street
New York 32, New York

Western Psychological Association: June 18-20, 1953; Seattle, Washington

For information write to:

Dr. Richard Kilby
Department of Psychology
San Jose State College
San Jose, California

Association for Physical and Mental Rehabilitation: July 20-24, 1953; Washington, D. C.

For information write to:

Dr. John Eisele Davis
3423 S. Utah Street
Arlington, Virginia

Association Internationale de Psychotechnique: July 27-August 1, 1953; Paris

For information write to:

Pr. R. Bonnardel
41, rue Gay-Lussac
Paris 5^e, France

International Sociological Association: July 27-August 4, 1953; Liege

For information write to:

Mr. Erik Rinde
Grev Wedels pl. 4
Oslo, Norway

Gerontological Society: August 25-27, 1953; San Francisco, California

For information write to:

Dr. Harold E. Jones
Institute for Child Welfare
University of California
Berkeley 4, California

Society for the Study of Social Problems: August 29-September 1, 1953; Berkeley, California

For information write to:

Professor Byron L. Fox, Secretary
Society for the Study of Social Problems
Syracuse University
Syracuse, New York

American Sociological Society: August 30-September 1, 1953; Berkeley, California

For information write to:

American Sociological Society
New York University
Washington Square
New York 3, New York

Change in Plans for the 1953 Meeting of the American Psychological Association

Please note that the 1953 meetings of the American Psychological Association will not be held at Michigan State College as originally planned. They will be held in Cleveland, Ohio on September 4-9, 1953. Details concerning local arrangements appear on page 183 of this issue.

ETHICAL STANDARDS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS

In September 1952 the Council of Representatives of the American Psychological Association adopted *Ethical Standards of Psychologists* as official policy of the Association. The standards, which are provisional, will be used for a three-year trial period. They will be revised, as necessary, and will be considered by the Council for final action in 1955.

The Education and Training Board of the APA has recommended the use of *Ethical Standards of Psychologists* in graduate training programs.

Also available is a smaller booklet, *Ethical Standards of Psychologists, A Summary of Ethical Principles*, which presents in brief the major tenets of the code.

Prices:

Ethical Standards of Psychologists, 186 pages, \$1.00.

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HOTEL RESERVATIONS

American Psychological Association
61st Annual Convention

Cleveland, Ohio, September 4-9, 1953

The hotels listed below have agreed to furnish room block reservations for the APA Convention. These are the only hotels which have agreed to reserve space for APA members. The range of prices for each type of accommodation is shown. Few rooms are available at the lowest prices.

We are able to assure only rooms for double or multiple occupancy. Please determine in advance those who will share accommodations. Only a limited number of single rooms are available.

Division 3 (Division of Experimental Psychology) has expressed an interest in being housed in the Statler Hotel. Members who wish to stay in this hotel should mark the Statler as their first choice, and send in their requests for accommodations as soon as possible.

The hotel reservation application given below is intended for use by persons attending the APA Convention. The APA Housing Bureau is unable to assume responsibility for those who will be attending meetings of other groups being held at the same time as the APA Convention.

Hotels and Rates Per Day

Hotel	Single	Double	Twin-Bed	Suite
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Auditorium	\$4.50-\$ 8.00	\$7.00-\$10.00	\$10.00-\$11.00	\$25.00
Cleveland	\$5.00-\$10.00	\$8.50-\$10.00	\$10.00-\$16.00	\$23.00-\$34.00 (2 rooms) \$37.00-\$46.00 (3 rooms)
Hollenden**	\$4.50-\$ 8.00	\$7.00-\$12.50	\$ 9.00-\$16.00	\$18.00-\$25.00 (2 rooms) \$30.00 up (3 rooms)
Olmstead	\$4.25-\$ 8.00	\$7.00-\$10.00	\$ 8.00-\$10.00	\$15.00-\$20.00
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* R.W. means running water (without bath).

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..... Twin-bed room(s)	Rate \$..... to \$..... per room	the nearest available rate will
..... Suite(s)	Rate \$..... to \$..... per suite	be assigned.
..... Bed in dormitory room	Rate \$.....	
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Choice of hotel: (please be *sure* to give four choices)

Hotel.....	First choice
Hotel.....	Second choice
Hotel.....	Third choice
Hotel.....	Fourth choice

Date of arrival.....	A.M. P.M.	Date of departure.....	A.M. P.M.
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(These *must* be indicated. Please be precise.)

Name(s) of room occupants:	Sex	Address	City	State
Name				

(Attach list of additional names, if necessary)

Note: Mail this application form to the APA Housing Bureau, 511 Terminal Tower, Cleveland 13, Ohio. Do *not* mail it to the APA Central Office. You will receive confirmation directly from the hotel accepting your reservation after July 1, 1953.

(Copies of this form may be obtained from the APA Central Office.)

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American Psychological Association
61st Annual Convention

Cleveland, Ohio, September 4-9, 1953

Please print:

Name: Mrs. _____
Miss _____
Mr. _____
Dr. _____
last first middle

Professional Affiliation:

(Name of affiliation or
institution to appear
on badge)

City

State

Home Address: _____

Division Membership: _____

Please check one:

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Member, Student Journal Group _____

APA Associate _____

Foreign Affiliate _____

Non-member* _____

* Non-members must pay a registration fee of \$2.50. This fee is waived for Foreign Affiliates and members of the Student Journal Group.

Please mail this form to APA Registration Committee, 511 Terminal Tower, Cleveland 13, Ohio.
Do *not* mail it to the APA Central Office.

When you arrive in Cleveland, pick up your badge at the Convention registration desk at the Cleveland College Building.

(Copies of this form may be obtained from the APA Central Office.)

1951 Directory of the American Psychological Association

Reduction in price to APA members

APA members may now obtain the 1951 Directory for \$2.00. The regular price is \$5.00. Associate members elected in 1952 and 1953 will be particularly interested in obtaining this biographical directory at a greatly reduced price. Only a limited number is available.

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CHANGES IN INFORMATION FOR THE 1953 APA DIRECTORY

If you have sent in the information card for the 1953 APA Directory, and if you need to indicate changes in the data now appearing on the card, please fill out the appropriate section(s) of the form below and send it to: 1953 Directory, American Psychological Association, Inc., 1333 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington 6, D. C. There will be no form like this in the June *American Psychologist*, even though the letter accompanying the card said there would be. This is the *last* opportunity for APA members to indicate changes in 1953 Directory information.

No Directory entries can be developed from the form below. The deadline for the receipt of the cards was April 15, 1953. Only Associates and Fellows of the Association are included in its directories.

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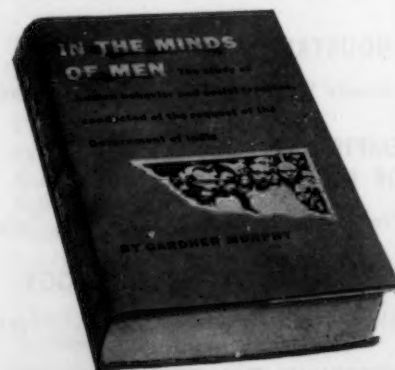
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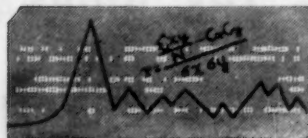
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